ABSTRACT

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PATTERNS OF BLACK HOMICIDE IN ATLANTA: 1979-1989

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Atlanta, Georgia ranks first among cities in the United States in violent crime rates and third in homicide rates. This research proposes an analysis of homicide patterns in Atlanta from 1979 through 1989, in terms of homicide rates by victim-offender relationship, race and gender of both perpetrators and victims, perpetrators' motives, weapons utilized and seasonal variation (month, day and time of homicide). Motives are classified as follows: verbal argument, emotional argument, sex related, lovers tiff, alcohol and drug, theft, and other. Homicide patterns will be analyzed by both statistical and graphic methods. Annual percent change in homicides by all afore-mentioned variables

will be compared and tested for statistical significance utilizing t-test procedures. Auto-regressive methods (ARIMA) are employed to predict the homicide trends by 2000; i.e., over the next ten year period.

PATTERNS OF BLACK HOMICIDE IN ATLANTA: 1979-1989

A THESIS

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

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INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

This study has a three-fold focus: 1. The examination of the relationship between homicide rates in Atlanta (1979-1989) and: a) victim offender relationships, b) race of perpetrator and victim; c) gender of perpetrator and victim; d) motives; e) type of weapons used; and f) temporal variations. 2. The determination of Atlanta homicide trends by the foregoing variables. 3. The prediction of future homicide trends in the City of Atlanta by the six study variables; that is, from 1990 through 2000 A.D.

Studies of homicide in Atlanta (Imes, 1972) and other U.S. cities (Wolfgang, 1958; Pokorney, 1965; Harlan, 1950) over the years have defined many general characteristics of homicide in urban America. Relatives and close friends tend to kill their victims in their homes. A disproportionate number of perpetrators and victims are black rather than white and male rather than female. Most homicides occur on the weekends as opposed to weekdays and between the hours of 6:00 p.m. and 2:00

a.m. Studies have also noted escalating homicide rates for urban blacks who live in inner-city poverty areas (Imes, 1972; Harlan, 1950).

Study Site

According to the 1980 census, Atlanta is the largest city in the state of Georgia and ranks thirteenth in the nation. It also shows that 68 percent of Atlantans were black or non white and 32 percent were white (Francis, 1990). According to the media and street reports Atlanta citizens are worried about the steady increase of black homicide in the city. Since 1984, most homicides have occurred in the low income areas of Fulton county which includes a major area of Atlanta. Firearms are the primary choice of weapons for committing homicides in Atlanta and elsewhere. Cutting or stabbing instruments are the second most likely weapons. Physical force is still used but not as frequently (Rose and McClain, 1990).

Significance of the Problem

The City of Atlanta ranks first among American cities in violent crime rate; that is, with 40 violent crimes per 1,000 people for the year 1989. It ranked third in homicide rate, in 1989 (58 homicides reported

by the Uniform Crime Reports per 100,000 population) following Washington, D.C. and Detroit. This study of homicide patterns in Atlanta during the last decade (1979 to 1989) examines trends in homicide rate by victim-offender relationship, race and gender of victim and offender; that is, homicides reported to the police. The analysis includes perpetrators' motives, weapons used, and the temporal variation in homicide in terms of time, day and month as reported by the police. The interrelationship between homicide rates (dependent variable) and all other variables (independent variables) is determined.

Scope and Plan of Study

This research focuses on reported homicide rates from 1979-1989 in the area of Atlanta. The data is at the city level, not county or statewide. Independent study variables consist of victim-offender relationship, race and gender of perpetrator and victim, motives, type of weapons used, and temporal variation (month, day, and time of day).

Source of Data

The primary longitudinal data required for this study were collected from three sources: (1) Annual

reports of Atlanta police from 1979 through 1989; (2) FBI's 1989 Uniform Crime Reports. The secondary data were collected from scholarly books, newspapers, magazines and journals from articles.

Organization of Thesis

This thesis consists of six chapters. Chapter I, Introduction, encompasses the statement of the problem, study site, scope and plan of study, source of data and the organization of thesis.

Chapter II, the Review of Selected Literature on Homicide; Psychological Correlates on Homicide, Sociological Correlates on Homicide, Subculture of Violence.

Chapter III, Conceptual Framework, Hypotheses is self explanatory, Measurement of Variables and Methodology deals with descriptive analysis, inferential analysis and statistical models.

Chapter IV, Analysis of Data, deals with the statistical analysis of the selected variables; Chapter V, Conclusion summarizes the study, outlines the findings; and discusses implications and recommendations for further research. The appendix and bibliography are appended.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF SELECTED LITERATURE ON HOMICIDES

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REVIEW OF SELECTED LITERATURE ON HOMICIDES

Psychological Correlates of Homicide

Frustration Aggression Hypothesis

According to John Dollard et al. (1939) aggression is a direct result of frustration. People who are frustrated naturally become aggressive, in contrast, people who exhibit aggressive behavior more often are frustrated. This frustration-aggression hypothesis has been researched and criticized by psychologists who found that frustration does not always lead to aggression, and aggressive behavior does not always signify frustration. However, humans exemplify frustration and aggression which are innately based. People tend to respond to frustration and anger in various ways.

Leonard Berkowitz (1962, 1969, 1973) helped to revise the frustration-aggression theory by stating that as one component of frustration increases, the probability that an individual will become angry and soon act aggressively increases. He defines aggression

as a behavior whose goal is to inflict damage or injury on some object or person.

Another component of the revised hypothesis is the concept of anticipated goals or expectations. If a person expects or anticipates a certain goal to be reached and something or someone stands in the way of reaching that goal then frustration is likely to occur. According to Berkowitz (1969) aggression is only one response to frustration. There are other possible solutions such as withdrawal, doing nothing, or trying to change situations by compromise.

The following three steps are connected to the revised frustration-aggression hypothesis (1) the person is blocked from obtaining an expected goal; (2) frustration results, generating anger; and, (3) anger predisposes or readies the person to behave aggressively (Bartol, 1991). Whether or not a person behaves in an aggressive manner depends on that person's learning history, how he interprets the event, and how that individual responds to frustration.

Modeling Theory

There are other reasons people behave aggressively when frustrated, one major reason is from past learning

experiences. According to Bandura (1973) children develop different patterns and behaviors by looking at their parents and other adults who they feel are significant. This is called modeling or imitating other people. Actually, research reveals that conditions most conducive to learning aggressive behaviors are those where the child (1) has many opportunities to observe aggression, (2) is reinforced for his or her own aggression, (3) is often the object of aggression (Huesmann, 1988). Bandura (1983) identifies three types of models: (1) family members, (2) members of one's subculture, and (3) symbolic models provided by the mass media. The family tends to be the most powerful role models for children, the peer group for adolescents. The communities and groups account for the highest incidence of aggression.

The mass media tends to be a symbolic model, especially television which offers many powerful aggressive and violent models ranging from Saturday morning cartoons to X-rated cable shows. Social learning theory hypothesizes that the roots of aggressive behavior are initially acquired through observing aggressive models or by direct experience.

Being exposed to aggressive models does not guarantee that the observer will try to engage in the same aggressive behavior. Observational learning is what happens to the observed model. If the model is punished during or right after an aggressive episode, the observer's behavior will be inhibited. Periodic reinforcement is needed to maintain aggressive behavior. Social learning theorists say that aggression is maintained through instrumental learning (Bartol, 1991).

Cognitive Scripts

According to recent cognitive models for learning aggression the person's cognitive capacities are just asimportant as observational learning. Rowell Huesmann (1988) states that social and aggressive behavior are controlled largely by cognitive scripts which are learned and memorized through daily experiences. Each person has his own script which is released throughout life, when the person faces a problem certain scripts are easily retrieved and utilized. Some scripts are inconsistent or violate one's internalized standards and are unlikely to be stored or utilized. If a person has poorly integrated internal standards against aggression

or is convinced that being aggressive is a way of life, that person is more apt to have aggressive scripts of behavior (Huesmann, 1988).

Aggression is also a simple, direct way to solve pending problems. If something is not going your way, aggressive behavior is the easiest and most direct way to solve the problem as opposed to prosocial solutions and non aggressive scripts which are less direct and more complex. These prosocial solving techniques require social skills which take time to develop. Huesmann et al. (1984) concluded from a twenty-two year longitudinal study that diminished intellectual and poor social skills will determine if a child is likely to develop aggressive behavior. Even more evidence suggests that this behavior if developed will continue into adulthood. Limited intellectual competence and inadequate skills cause aggressive behavior which is interactive. This behavior might interfere with positive social interactions with teachers and peers (Bartol, 1991). Zillman (1988) agrees with Berkowitz's cognitive script theory but emphasizes the importance of physiological arousal (depending upon the strength of the external stimuli) as it interacts with

cognitions.

Effects of the Mass Media

By the age of 16, the average child has spent more time watching television than sitting in a classroom and has probably seen more than 13,000 killings (Walters and Malamud, 1975). Due to this fact, it is not surprising that media violence disturbs many people. This effect of the media has intrigued many researchers in the past and present. General studies reveal that television violence has a significant effect on people's aggressive behavior. There also seems to be a correlation between the printed media and aggressive actions.

Bandura (1965) conducted research with sixty-six nursery school children by showing them each a film of an adult verbally and physically assaulting a "BoBo" doll. One group saw the adult being rewarded for her aggressive behavior, a second group observed the adult being spanked and reprimanded verbally and a third group saw that the model received neither punishment nor reward. The children were then allowed free-play time in a playroom with toys and a BoBo doll. The group that witnessed the aggressive behavior was more aggressive during their playtime than the other groups. Boys

tended to be more aggressive than girls. The group which saw the adult being punished showed the least amount of aggressive behavior during playtime.

Bandura's findings were conclusive that media violence has a lot to do with aggressive behavior. Follow-up studies also showed that media violence may have a similar effect on real-life violence in many situations (Baron, 1977). This is not to say that being exposed to media violence automatically promotes aggression. It affects some individuals more than others. Children from low-income families tended to be more influenced by media violence than middle-class children (Eisenhower, 1969). This could be due to the violence or other factors as well.

Research has also found that positive parental guidance and models will possibly override violent television models (Chaffee and McLeod, 1971; Goldstein, 1975) and television violence is less effective on families where parents do not solve problems by resulting to aggression (Chaffee and McLeod, 1971). It has been proven that aggressive children watch more media violence, identify more with violent characters, and believe more that violence affects real-life than

non aggressive children (Lefkowitz, et al., 1977; Huesmann, 1988; Huesmann and Eron, 1986).

It is not clear if aggressive styles are promoted by the media but Berkowitz (1970) suggests that people who rely on aggression to meet their needs are more influenced by the media than others. It is also noted by Cline, et al. (1973) that repeated exposure to television violence may be harmful to heavy viewers. They also tend to respond to violence with less physiological arousal than do light viewers which suggests that heavy viewers have been desensitized to violent events.

Victim-Precipitated Aggression

Often an act of aggression is precipitated by a person who is later considered the victim. It usually begins as an argument which turns into a violent brawl called an escalation. Baron (1977) reviewed research which showed that most people respond to provocation and that the response is geared towards the type of provocation. The concept of escalation starts when the first person reacts to the provocation. Then the person who started the argument retaliates, most likely in a violent manner. This turns into a physical fight.

Escalation is compared with social learning theory in that in both it shows that we influence our social environment as much as our environment influences us.

If a person believes that aggression is innate and a part of our evolutionary heritage then we can conclude that aggression is a part of human nature and it would be hard to alter. On the other hand, if a person believes that the environment is the cause of aggression then the cognitive theories of human learning and thought become the key issues and there is hope that this learned aggressive behavior can be changed (Bartol, 1991).

Sociological Correlates Of Homicides

Race

One of the most consistent findings reported in the sociological criminology literature is that blacks in the United States are involved in criminal homicide at a rate that far exceeds their numbers in the general population.

Wolfgang (1958, 1961) conducted a study in Philadelphia of 588 homicides between 1948 and 1952 and found that about 73 percent of the offenders and 75 percent of the victims were black. Ninety-four percent

of the cases concluded that most homicides were intraracial meaning, blacks killed blacks and whites killed whites. Further studies concur with Wolfgang's findings in stating that blacks are the number one offenders and homicide victims (Block, 1985). Most of these studies focused on urban areas.

Riedel, Zahn and Mock (1985) conducted a nationwide study which showed that blacks were offenders in at least 50 percent of all homicides and that homicides tended to be intraracial. Richard Block led a ten-year study (1965-1975) in Chicago on criminal violence and found that the incidence of homicide more than doubled but the proportion of involvement by race changed very little. Only twelve percent of the United States population is black but they commit 56 percent of the homicides and are 50 percent of the victims. Half of all victims of rape, and 57 percent of the perpetrators, are black. Two-thirds of the people arrested for robbery and 41 percent of those arrested for aggrevated assault are black (Greenberg, 1991). They are arrested for nearly 50 percent of all violent crimes. Overall, blacks comprise about 40 percent of prisoners in local jails and almost 50 percent in state and federal

facilities.

The 1976 death figures for black men include heart attacks 176.5 per 100,000; cancer 179.2 per 100,000; accident, strokes and hemmorages 79.3 per 100,000 and homicide 55.8 per 100,000 which brings the death totals to 590.8 per 100,000. Excluded from these figures are drug related deaths and suicides which are extremely high for the black male population. Other statistics such as employment, education, under-employemnt, and male heads of households are also very discouraging (Madhubuti, 1990).

According to studies and recent findings, black males have a 1 in 30 chance of being a homicide victim whereas white males have a 1 in 179 chance. Murder is the leading cause of death among black males between the ages of twenty-five and forty-five (Rice, 1980; Humphrey and Palmer, 1987). Black females have a 1 in 132 chance of becoming homicide victims as opposed to white females who have a 1 in 495 chance.

These figures are probably due to societal inequalities such as lack of opportunities, relative deprivation, unmet goals, racial oppression and discriminatory treatment.

Gender

The relationship between homicide and gender is also very strong but not as strong as race and homicide. Wolfgang stated that in his Philadelphia study 82 percent of the murderers and 76 percent of the victims were male. The homicide offender rate per 100,000 was 41.7 for black males, 9.3 for black females, 3.4 for white males, and only 0.4 for white females. These correlates show that black males is the group with the highest incidence of homicides.

Uniform Crime Reports data reveals that the annual arrest rates for murder run about 90 percent male, 10 percent female. Other studies have also confirmed the high ratio of males to females when homicide is at issue (Pokorney, 1965).

Age

About one-half of all those arrested for violent crimes are between the ages of twenty and twenty-nine (Riedel, Zahn and Mock, 1985). According to the United States Department of Justice (1988), and Hindelang (1981) young black males between eighteen and twenty have the highest rate of offending. Recently, there has been a small increase in the elderly committing violent

crimes (Newman, Newman and Gerwirtz, 1984). Most criminal careers drop off between adolescence and early adulthood but some people make criminal involvement a long-term career.

Social Economic Status

Researchers have long since assumed that crime was primarily a lower class phenomenon. Recent research continues to support this view of crime occurring among the lower class (Williams, 1984; Smith and Bennett, 1985; Blau and Blau, 1982; Hawkins, 1985). Braithwaith (1981), after reviewing over 100 studies, found considerable support that the lower class commit more crimes. Thornberry and Farnworth (1982) argue that a person's social status is more relevant to criminal activity than social class. As of today, SES and violent offenses are still related but nonviolent serious offenses are still an issue.

Victim-Offender Relationship

In the past, researchers have indicated that the victim and offender knew one another well in at least two-thirds of the cases (Wolfgang, 1958; Bullock, 1955; Svalastoga, 1956; Driver, 1961; Hepburn and Voss, 1970; Wong and Singer, 1973). According to Wolfgang (1958)

the victim and offender were strangers in 14 percent of the cases. In Hepburn and Voss (1970) it was nineteen percent. Research today shows that strangers are killing more people. In Chicago during 1974, murderers and their victims were acquainted in only 58 percent of the incidents (Block, 1977). The increase in armed robberies is one explanation for the increase in strangers killing strangers.

The perpetrator of violent crimes is a stranger 55 percent of the time, an acquaintance 32 percent of the time and a relative eight percent of the time. In 1989, strangers committed 3.2 million violent crimes. Nearly 25 percent of all violent crimes were committed by relatives, 39 percent are committed by three or more. In 1989, 15 percent of homicides were committed by relatives, 39 percent by acquaintances, 13 percent by strangers, and 33 percent were committed by persons where the relationship was unknown. For female victims in 1989, 28 percent were killed by husbands or boyfriends as opposed to 5 percent of male victims killed by wives or girlfriends (Violent Crimes in the United States, U.S. Department of Justice, 1991).

Motives

Wolfgang found that about 26 percent of homicide cases were victim-precipitated. The victim contributed in some significant way to his or her own demise. Hepburn and Voss (1970) found that about 38 percent of Chicago homicides seemed provoked by the victim. Studies show that minor altercations and domestic quarrels often lead to violent outbursts and aggressive behavior. As in escalation, mentioned earlier, some people tend to retaliate in kind to insults or blows. Quite often verbal quarrels seem to escalate to physical altercation. Separated from the context in which they took place, the precipitating factors of violent behavior are often pitifully trivial. Since more homicides are being committed by strangers with victims as strangers also, the figures for victim precipitation may change.

About two-thirds of all black homicides are the result of arguments or some other felony situation.

Alcohol is also a precipitating factor associated with homicide. Wolfgang reported that in nearly two-thirds of the cases, either the victim, the offender, or both had been drinking immediately prior to

the slaying.

Psychological literature suggests that violent people prone to homicide have different nervous systems from nonviolent people. In brief, the psychopaths are more likely to engage in violent crimes than introverts. The evidence for this is in the form of EEGs, hemisphere asymmetry, hyperactivity and the neurological system (Bartol, 1991, See Chapter 3).

Weapons Used

Guns and knives are the two preferred instruments for inflicting death, but this is influenced by gender, race, geography, and other parameters. According to Wolfgang (1958) in Philadelphia stabbing was the most common lethal method but in Chicago in the 1960s and 1970s shooting was preferred (Hepburn & Voss, 1970; Block, 1977). Most studies show that guns are the major weapon used in the commission of homicides in the United States. According to Ramsey Clark, since 1900 guns have killed over 800,000 persons in America. The number of privately owned guns has been estimated at 140 million (Bruce-Briggs, 1976). Guns are harmful weapons that are too easily accessible in the United States to any person such as drug addicts, criminals, alcoholics, children,

incompetents or anyone who wants them even though that person may or may not be dangerous.

Nationwide data now indicate that firearms are used in over 60 percent of all homicides, while knives are used in about 20 percent (U.S. Department of Justice, 1988). Half of all homicides are committed with handguns.

The type of weapon used to commit a homicide usually depends on the amount of energy used and the danger the assailant finds himself to be in. It also depends on the strength of the offender. Guns tend to make the offender feel that he can conquer the world as opposed to using knives or physical force. Handguns are the weapon of choice and have been on the increase due to the drug war and drug related crimes (Rose and McClain, 1990).

The risk factor for young black males is a higher rate for handguns than for older black males. Younger males are more likely to be victims of instrumentally motivated actions, and expressive motivations continue to account for a much larger share of older male confrontations (Rose and McClain, 1990).

Assault homicide with a gun increased rapidly until

the middle of 1973, declined sharply through 1975, then remained stable through 1981. Black intraracial assault homicide with a firearm continued to climb to mid-1971, then declined, whereas those committed without a firearm changed only slightly over the 17 years (Block, 1985).

Temporal Variations

Homicides tend to increase during the summer months, though some recent research (Cheatwood, 1988) suggests that the month of December has the highest incidence of homicide in the United States. Weekends, especially between 8 p.m. Saturday and 2 a.m. Sunday, are clearly when homicides most often occur (Wolfgang, 1958; Hepburn and Voss, 1970; Block, 1977).

Subculture Of Violence

As for cultural explanations to support the use of assaultive violence leading to homicide are theses proposed by Wolfgang and Ferracuti (1967), "Subculture of Violence," and Gastil (1971), "Regional Culture of Violence." Each in its own way deals with the poverty theory. Gastil emphasized the importance of learned traditions in combination with a biosocial response to

one's position at the bottom of the status heirarchy. Wolfgang and Ferracuti emphasized the role of the internalization of social norms of violence and the sanctioning of violent behavior by one's peers. Gastil explains regional differences in violence by stating that a southern lifestyle is strongly related to homicide and that certain cultural forces most likely are responsible for the violence (Erlanger, 1976).

Wolfgang and Ferracuti's subculture of violence focuses on the study of homicide in a broad range but Wolfgang's Patterns in Criminal Homicide (1958) presented a detailed study of a series of Philadelphia homicides. The subculture of violence includes a set of values and attitudes that condone and sometimes demand violence as a response to insult by others or as a means of settling disputes and self-felt threats. This so-called subculture is frequently carried in black ghettos by young, black, males who are frequently undereducated, underemployed, unskilled, and poor. They feel that they have little stake in the American mainstream to which they feel excluded. They do not see ligitimate means available to them for future betterment. Many lack the motivation and verbal skills

necessary to negotiate themselves out of difficulty. Violence to them is a learned, effective, direct and macho way to settle difficulties (Wolfgang and Ferracuti, 1967). Note that this explanation does not include personality factors, which to a great degree determine one's reactions to social structure and social situations. In brief, personality factors may determine differential response mechanisms. Wolfgang's most controversial finding was that most killers were previously involved in criminal activities. He also stated that most murders are intraracial meaning that they are known to one another (Gastil, 1971).

Most cultural paradigm researchers believe that observed violence demonstrates an acting out by those considered to be carriers of a ghetto tradition. They tend to emphasize individual vs. group, urban vs. rural, north vs. south. To date there have been limited efforts put forth by researchers to demonstrate the direct impact of culture on the propensity of blacks to engage in acts of violence (Rose and McClain, 1990). Curtis (1975) directly addresses issues of violence in black communities. He does this by expanding on Wolfgang and Ferracuti's thesis and incorporating

Gastil's proposed approach. Wilson (1987), a noted balck scholar, stated that the culture of poverty stance was inexcusable for describing the present plight of urban blacks.

In analyzing the problems of Southern violence, Hackney (1969) questioned some noncultural explanations. He suggested that cultural differences or explanations are strongly emphashized as playing a role in explaining American homicide rates and that this explanation is based on the understanding that the Southern regional culture has an influence towards violent crime (Gastil, 1971).

Gastil believes that the evidence suggests that southern regional culture, due to a predisposition to lethal violence, accounts for the greater part of the relative height of the American homicide rate. He constructed a "southerness index" in which he assigned a series of weights to each state based on how far South it lies. This index was a strong predictor of state homicide rates even when the age structure, ethnic structure, and poverty indicators were controlled. He hypothesized that the Southern cultural tradition allowed for the use of lethal violence in certain

settings, especially the use of firearms which increased the likelihood of murders when violence did occur (Smith and Parker, 1980).

The difference between subculture of lethal violence and "subculture of violence" was noted in Gastil's works. As pointed out by his works:

> Violent people do not necessarily develop a culture that condones violence. A violent tradition may be one that in a wide range of situations condones lethal violence, or it may be a tradition that more indirectly raises the murder rate .... The regional concept also suggests more persistence over time and intergenerational reinforcement than does the subcultural concept.

Others researchers such as Reed, Erlanger, and Doever, tended to support the research done by Gastil. In all of their works it was concluded that the attitude towards violence in the South was much stronger than in the North and that there was a greater approval of violence in the South (Smith and Parker, 1980).

The black subculture evolved from Blacks in America who had African heritages and cultures but tried to modify their native African cultural habits to the American way of life. The extent to which African values continued to rank high among the emerging value

mix cannot be specified, although it is evident that selected African traditions (e.g. dance, music, etc.) have been retained and incorporated into southern regional culture (Joyner, 1983) and into the national culture (Levine, 1977) as well. Culture has and always will be an important contributor to differences in observed homicide risk levels in the United States.

Conclusion of Literature Review

Sociological data indicate that homicides are rare compared to the total incidence of violent crime. They are generally committed by young males, usually black, who live in environments conducive to violence for the resolution of conflict. Sociologists stress that violent offenders, including murderers, are usually lower-class, unskilled, undereducated, underemployed, without negotiations, motivation or negotiating skills. Guns are the weapons of choice for this generation of killers and knives are second. It also indicates that in one-fourth of the cases the victim precipitated the homicide by some type of argument or violent behavior. According to data most homicides occur on the weekends during the evening hours.

Psychological data suggests that there are three central issues which surround violence: (1) self-control, (2) emotional arousal and (3) individual reference points for behavioral guidance. They point out that violent offenders have higher levels of emotional arousal without strong impulse controls. Their nervous systems and personalities render them violent prone. However, social learning including modeling and cognitive scripts are also important in generating violence (psychopathic personalities - poor impulse controls).

CHAPTER III

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK, HYPOTHESES, MEASUREMENT OF VARIABLES AND METHODOLOGY

CHAPTER III

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK, HYPOTHESES, MEASUREMENT OF VARIABLES AND METHODOLOGY

Conceptual Framework

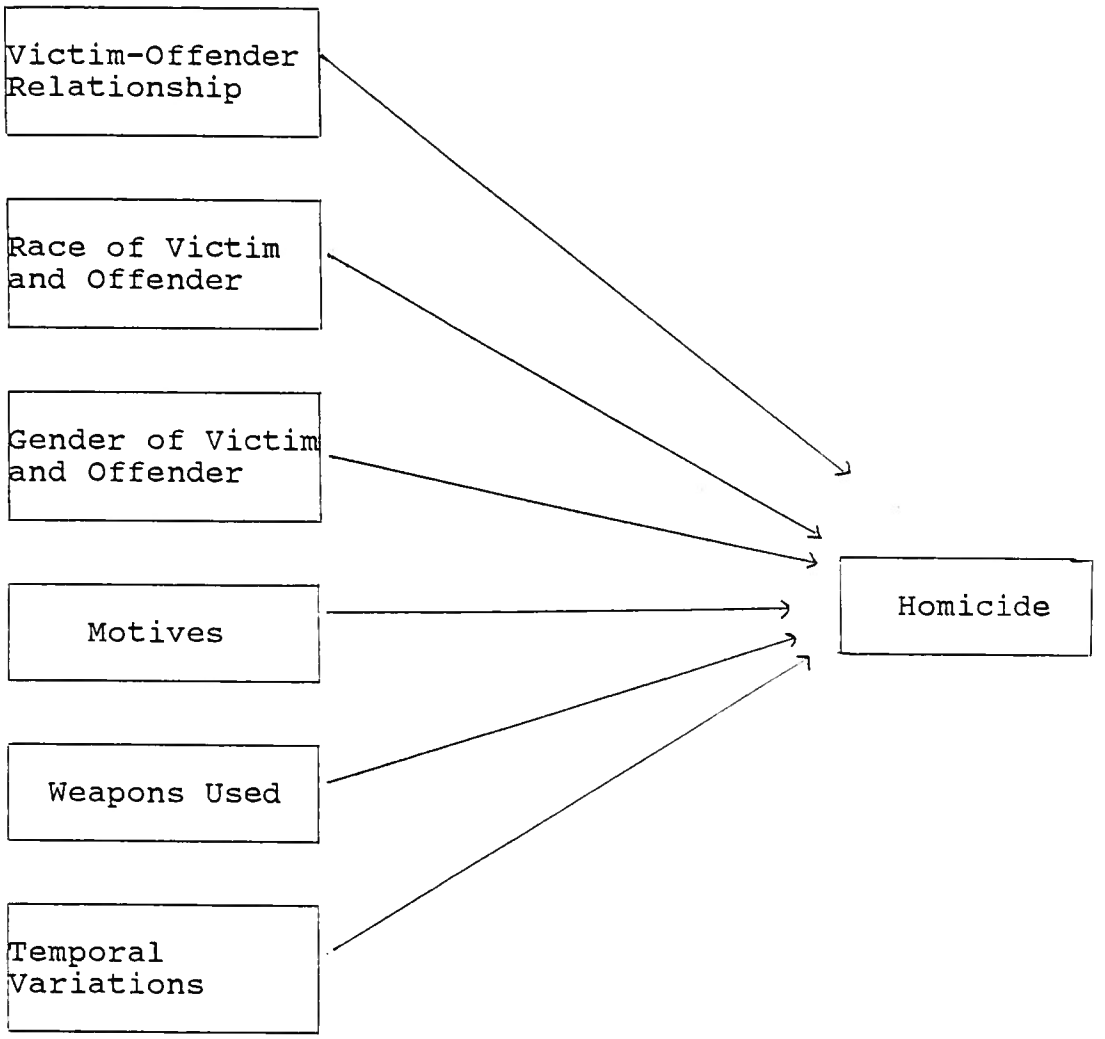
The literature reviewed in Chapter II suggests the conceptual schema diagrammed in Chart I (p. 30). As the schema shows six sociological correlates, namely: victim-offender relationship, race of perpetrator and victim, gender of perpetrator and victim, motives, weapons used and temporal variations are expected to have a significant relationship with homicides in Atlanta, and that such relationship remains consistent between 1979 and 1989. We postulate that the pattern of homicide between 1979 and 1989 will determine future Atlanta homicide trends from 1990 through 2000.

Hypotheses

The present study aims to test the following hypotheses:

1) There is a significant effect of victim-offender relationship, race and gender of victim and

CHART 1


Victim-Offender Relationship
Race of Victim and Offender
Gender of Victim and Offender
Motives
Weapons Used
Temporal Variations
Homicide

offender, motives, weapons used and temporal variations on Atlanta homicides during the period 1979-1989;

2) There has been an increasing trend in Atlanta homicide between 1979 and 1989;
3) There are no major shifts in Atlanta homicides by victim-offender relationships, (race and gender), motives, weapons used and seasonal variations from 1979 through 1989.
4) The prediction of homicides from 1990 to 2000 indicate the increasing trends of homicide in Atlanta.

Measurement of Variables

The importance of the measurement in the area of social research have been repeatedly emphasized in the literature (See for example Blalock, 1982).

By measurement, the researcher refers to the operational definitions or the general process to which numbers are assigned to objects in such a fashion that is also understood just what kinds of quantitative operations can legitimately be used, given the nature of the physical operations that have been used to justify

or rationalize this assignment of numbers to objects.

This study involves one dependent variable (Homicide) and six independent variables (victim-offender relationship, race of victim and offender, gender of victim and offender, motives, weapons, and temporal variations). The measurement of each of these variables is described below:

Homicide is the number of murders, non-negligent homicides and manslaughter by negligence that have occurred in the City of Atlanta in any given year between 1979 and 1989.

Victim-Offender Relationship

The victim-offender relationship is measured in three categories: (1) Domestic; (2) Stranger; and, (3) Acquaintance.

Race

Race refers to the race of both the victim and offender which is measured in three categories: (1) Black; (2) White; and, (3) Unknown.

Gender

As in the case of race, gender refers to the gender of both victim and offender and is coded for (1) males and (2) females.

Motives

The motives of homicide are those that prompted the offender to commit homicide. Eight categories of motives are observed: (1) Verbal Argument such as senseless arguments, domestic arguments, arguments over money, and sudden anger; (2) Emotional Argument such as jealous arguments and sudden arguments; (3) Sex Related such as homosexual arguments, homosexual domestic jealous arguments, and jealous love triangle; (4) Lover's Tiff such as lover's triangles, and lover's quarrels; (5) Alcohol and Drug Related argument over drugs, drug related robbery, drunken argument, and gambling; (6) Death Related such as senseless killing of police officer by felon; (7) Theft such as attempted robbery, and victim killed by robbers; and, (8) Others such as premature birth due to mother receiving gunshot wound.

Weapons Used

The weapons that are involved in the homicide are grouped into five categories: (1) Deadly Weapons such as handguns, knives, shotguns, and rifles; (2) Physical Objects such as baseball bats, boards, planks, scissors, lead pipes, and beer bottles; (3) Physical Force such as

strangulation, bodily force and suffocation; (4) Natural Occurrences; and, (5) Unknown Objects.

Temporal Variations

1. Month

Month refers to the month of the homicide under observation. Months are coded from 1-12 corresponding from January to December in any given year between 1979 and 1989.

2. Day

Day refers to the month of the homicide under observation. Days are coded from 1-7 corresponding from Sunday to Saturday in any given week between 1979 and 1989.

3. Time

Time refers to the time of the homicide under observation. For measurement purposes, three categories were observed: (1) Morning 11:00 p.m. - 7:00 a.m.; (2) Daytime 7:00 a.m. - 3:00 p.m.; and, (3) Evening 3:00 p.m. - 11:00 p.m.

Methodology

This section outlines the statistical tests adopted in the analysis of data to fulfill the study objectives.

Descriptive Analysis

Cross tabulations are used to describe the trends of homicide patterns by victim-offender relationship, race, gender, motives, weapons used, and temporal variations; month, day, and time during 1979 and 1989.

Inferential Analysis

Two analytical procedures (Analysis of Variance and Time Series) were employed. Analysis of variance is used to test significance of the effect of the study variables on homicides; and Time Series is used to predict Atlanta homicides by the study variables from 1990 to 2000.

Analysis of Variance is a method for partitioning the sum of squares for experimental or survey data into known components of variation.

In the analysis of variance differences of more than two groups can be tested for statistical significance. This method uses variance entirely, instead of using actual differences and standard errors, even though the actual difference-standard reasoning is behind the

method. Two variances are always pitted against each other. One variance, that presumably due to the independent variable or variables is pitted against another variance, that is presumably due to error or randomness. This is a case, again, of information versus error as Diamond would put it, or, as information theorists say, information versus noise. These two variances are commonly known as 'within groups variances' and 'between groups variances'. Within-group variance is estimated, essentially by calculating the variance of each group separately and then averaging the (two or more) variances.

This estimate of error is unaffected by the differences between the means. Thus, if nothing else is causing the scores to vary, it is reasonable to consider the within-groups variable due to the experimental effect, the between-groups variance, against this measure of chance error, the within-group variance.

To measure the relationship between homicides and the study variables the following statistical models are developed:

Statistical Models:

$$H_a = K + aR_i + e \quad \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots \quad (1)$$

where,

H_a = the homicide rates in Atlanta;

K = grand mean;

aR_i = the main effect of the victim-offender relationship;

e = error term or unique effect produced by variables not explicitly considered in the equation.

i varies from 1-3; 1 = stranger; 2 = acquaintance; and, 3 = domestic.

$$H_a = K + aR_o + bR_v + abR_{ov} + e \quad \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots \quad (2)$$

where,

aR_o = the main effect of race of offender;

aR_v = the main effect of race of victim;

abR_{ov} = the two-way interaction between race of offender and race of the victim;

H_a, K, and e are the same as in equation (1).

$$H_a = K + aG_o + bG_v + abG_{ov} + e \quad \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots \quad (3)$$

where,

aG_o = the main effect of gender of offender;

gG_v = the main effect of gender of victim;

abG_{ov} = the two-way interaction between gender of offender and gender of victim;

$$H_a = K + aM_i + e \quad \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots \quad (4)$$

where,

aMt_i = the main effect of the motives given for committing the homicide;

i varies from 1 to 8; 1 = Verbal Argument; 2 = Emotional Argument; 3 = Sex Related; 4 = Lover's Tiff; 5 = Alcohol and Drug Related; 6 = Death Related; 7 = Theft; 8 = Unknown.

$$H_a = K + aW_i + e \quad \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots \quad (5)$$

where,

aW_i = the main effect of the weapons used in committing the homicide;

i varies from 1 to 5; 1 = Deadly Weapons; 2 = Physical Objects; 3 = Physical Force; 4 = Natural Occurrences; 5 = Unknown.

Temporal Variations

$$H_a = K + aM_i + e \quad \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots \quad (6)$$

where,

aMi = the main effect of months homicides are committed;

i varies from January to December.

$H_a = K + aD_i + e$ ..... (7)

where,

aD_i = the main effect of day of the week homicides are committed;

i varies from Sunday to Saturday.

$H_a = K + aT_i + e$ ..... (8)

where,

aT_i = the main effect of the time of day the homicides are committed;

i varies from 1 to 3; 1 = morning 11:00 p.m. - 7:00 a.m.; 2 = day 7:00 a.m. - 3:00 p.m.; 3 = evening 3:00 p.m. - 11:00 p.m.

Trend Analysis

In trend analysis, one is interested where there is a general within effect but wishes to determine the mathematical form of the effect. As Bock (1975) notes, "in many applications the existence of a general occasion (repeated measures) effect is a foregone conclusion and the overall test is not of interest. What is measured is a more specific assessment of trend over occasions" (p. 452). In the present study these occasions refer to homicides in Atlanta by selected

study variables and population segments.

Two types of trend equations were initially determined: linear models and quadratic models. After comparing the R^2 coefficients, F-values and significance levels of these two equations, it was apparent that quadratic equations fit better for the given data structure for prediction purposes than do the linear ones. Accordingly, the following quadratic models were developed:

A: Predictions by Relationship

$$HRs_{i,t+i} = a + b_1 Rs_{i,t} + b_2 Rs^2_{i,t} + e \quad \ldots\ldots\ldots \quad (1)$$

where,

$HRs_{i,t+i}$ = projected homicides at time (t+i) given the victim-offender relationship.

$Rs_{i,t}$ = actual homicides at time (t) given the victim-offender relationship.

i varies from 1-3 (for detailed categories see section on Measurement of Variables).

B: Predictions by Race of offender and victim.

$$HR_{bb,t+i} = a + b_1 R_{bb,t} + b_2 R^2_{bb,t} + e \quad \ldots\ldots\ldots \quad (1)$$

where,

$HR_{bb,t+i}$ = projected homicides at time (t+i) given that race of offender is black and race

of victim is black.

a, b_1, and b_2 are constants.

$R_{bb,t}$ = actual homicides at time (t) given that race of offender is black and race of victim is black.

$$HR_{bw,t+i} = a + b_1R_{bw,t} + b_2R^2_{bw,t} + e \quad \ldots\ldots\ldots \quad (2)$$

where,

$HR_{bw,t+i}$ = projected homicides at time (t+i) given that race of offender is black and race of victim is white.

$R_{bw,t}$ = actual homicides at time (t) given that race of offender is black and race of victim is white.

$$HR_{wb,t+i} = a + b_1R_{wb,t} + b_2R^2_{wb,t} + e \quad \ldots\ldots\ldots \quad (3)$$

where,

$HR_{wb,t+i}$ = projected homicides at time (t+i) given that race of offender is white and race of victim is black.

$R_{wb,t}$ = actual homicides at time (t) given that race of offender is white and race of victim is black.

$$HR_{ww,t+i} = a + b_1R_{ww,t} + b_2R^2_{ww,t} + e \quad \ldots\ldots\ldots \quad (4)$$

where,

$HR_{ww,t+i}$ = projected homicides at time (t+i) given that race of offender is white and race of victim is white.

$R_{ww,t}$ = actual homicides at time (t) given that race of offender is white and race of victim is white.

$$HR_{ub,t+i} = a + b_1R_{ub,t} + b_2R^2_{ub,t} + e \quad \ldots\ldots\ldots \quad (5)$$

where,

$HR_{ub,t+i}$ = projected homicides at time (t+i) given that race of offender is unknown and race of victim is black.

$R_{ub,t}$ = actual homicides at time (t) given that race of offender is unknown and race of victim is black.

$$HR_{uw,t+i} = a + b_1R_{uw,t} + b_2R^2_{uw,t} + e \quad \ldots\ldots\ldots \quad (6)$$

where,

$HR_{uw,t+i}$ = projected homicides at time (t+i) given that race of offender is unknown and race of victim is white.

$R_{uw,t+i}$ = actual homicides at time (t) given that race of offender is unknown and race of victim is white.

C: Predictions by Gender of Offender and Victim

$$HG_{mm,t+i} = a + b_1 G_{mm,t} + b_2 G^2_{mm,t} + e \quad \ldots\ldots\ldots \quad (1)$$

where,

$HG_{mm,t+i}$ = projected homicides at time (t+i) given that gender of offender is male and gender of victim is male.

$G_{mm,t}$ = actual homicides at time (t) given that gender of offender is male and gender of victim is male.

$$HG_{mf,t+i} = a + b_1 G_{f,t} + b_2 G^2_{mf,t} + e \quad \ldots\ldots\ldots \quad (1)$$

where,

$HG_{mf,t+i}$ = projected homicides at time (t+1) given that gender of offender is male and gender of victim is female.

$G_{mf,t}$ = actual homicides at time (t) given that gender of offender is male and gender of victim is female.

$$HG_{fm,t+i} = a + b_1 G_{fm,t} + b_2 G^2_{fm,t} + e \quad \ldots\ldots\ldots \quad (2)$$

where,

$HG_{fm,t+i}$ = projected homicides at time (t+i) given that gender of offender is female and gender of victim is male.

$G_{fm,t}$ = actual homicides at time (t) given that gender of offender is female and gender of victim is male.

$$HG_{ff,t+i} = a + b_1 G_{ff,t} + b_2 G^2_{ff,t} + e \quad \ldots\ldots\ldots \quad (3)$$

where,

$HG_{ff,t+i}$ = projected homicides at time (t+i) given that gender of offender is female and gender of victim is female.

$G_{ff,t}$ = actual homicides at time (t) given that gender of offender is female and gender of victim is female.

$$HG_{um,t+i} = a + b_1 G_{um,t} + b_2 G^2_{um,t} + e \quad \ldots\ldots\ldots \quad (1)$$

where,

$HG_{um,t+i}$ = projected homicides at time (t+i) given that gender of offender is unknown and gender of victim is male.

$G_{um,t}$ = actual homicides at time (t) given that gender of offender is unknown and gender of victim is male.

$$HG_{uf,t+i} = a + b_1 G_{uf,t} + b_2 G^2_{uf,t} + e \quad \ldots\ldots\ldots \quad (1)$$

where,

$HG_{uf,t+i}$ = projected homicides at time (t+1) given that gender of offender is unknown and

gender of victim is female.

$G_{uf,t}$ = actual homicides at time (t) given that gender of offender is female and gender of victim is female.

D: Predictions by motives

$$HMt_{i,t+i} = a + b_1 Mt_{i,t} + b_2 Mt^2_{i,t} + e \quad \ldots\ldots\ldots \quad (1)$$

where,

$HMt_{i,t+i}$ = projected homicides at time (t+i) given the motives for the homicide.

$Mt_{i,t}$ = actual homicides at time (t) given the motives for the homicide.

i varies from 1-8 (for detailed categories see section on Measurement of Variables).

E: Predictions by weapons

$$HW_{i,t+i} = a + b_1 W_{i,t} + b_2 W^2_{i,t} + e \quad \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots \quad (3)$$

where,

$HW_{i,t+i}$ = projected homicides at time (t+i) given the weapons used for homicide.

$W_{i,t}$ = actual homicides at time (t) given the weapons used for homicide.

i varies from 1 to 5 (for detailed categories see section on Measurement of Variables).

F: Predictions by Months

$$HMo_{i,t+i} = a + b_1 Mo_{i,t} + b_2 Mo^2_{i,t} + e \quad \ldots\ldots\ldots \quad (4)$$

where,

$HMo_{i,t+i}$ = projected homicides at time (t+i) given the months for homicide.

$Mo_{i,t}$ = actual homicides at time (t) given the months for homicide.

i varies from January to December.

G: Predictions by Day

$$HD_{i,t+i} = a + b_1 D_{i,t} + b_2 D^2_{i,t} + e \quad \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots \quad (5)$$

where,

$HD_{i,t+i}$ = projected homicides at time (t+i) given the day for homicide.

$D_{i,t}$ = actual homicides at time (t) given the days for homicide.

i varies from Sunday to Saturday.

H: Predictions by Time

$$HT_{i,t+i} = a + b_1 T_{i,t} + b_2 T^2_{i,t} + e \quad \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots \quad (6)$$

where,

$HT_{i,t+i}$ = projected homicides at time (t+i) given the time for homicide.

$T_{i,t}$ = actual homicides at time (t) given the time for homicide.

i varies from 1-3 (for detailed categories see section on Measurement of Variables).

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS

This chapter discusses the analysis of data and findings.

The Relationship Between Homicide Rates In Atlanta (1979-1989)

Between 1979 and 1989, 2,197 homicides occurred in Atlanta an average of nearly 200 homicides per year. Table 1 shows the homicides by the victim-offender relationship. Almost 49 percent were strangers, 37.7 percent were acquaintances and 13.6 percent were domestic relationships. The analysis of variance in Table 2 shows that the victim offender relationship has a significant impact on the homicide rate.

Table 3 shows the homicides by race of the victim and the offender. Black on black crime in Atlanta was 91.8 percent as compared to white on white crime, 86.7 percent. This shows that the incidence of intraracial homicide is very high. Even though the white on white homicide percentage is high, the homicides only

TABLE 1

HOMICIDE RATES IN ATLANTA (1979-1989) BY RELATION

Relation	No. of Homicides in Atlanta	Percentage (N=2,042)
Domestic	277	13.6
Strangers	995	48.7
Acquaintance	770	37.7

TABLE 2

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE IN ATLANTA HOMICIDES BY RELATION

SOURCE OF VARIATION	SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARE	F	SIGNIF OF F
MAIN EFFECTS	1094729.523	2	547364.762	1095.143	0.000
RELATION	1094729.523	2	547364.762	1095.143	0.000
EXPLAINED	1094729.523	2	547364.762	1095.143	0.000
RESIDUAL	1019115.421	2039	499.811		
TOTAL	2113844.944	2041	1035.691		

TABLE 3

HOMICIDE RATES IN ATLANTA (1979-1989) BY RACE OF VICTIM AND RACE OF OFFENDER

RACE OF OFFENDER	RACE OF VICTIM		TOTAL
	BLACK	WHITE	
BLACK	1306 (91.8%)	117 (8.2%)	1423 (64.8%)
WHITE	20 (13.3%)	130 (86.7%)	150 (6.8%)
UNKNOWN	499 (80.0%)	125 (20.0%)	624 (28.4%)
TOTAL	1825 (83.1%)	372 (16.9%)	2197 (100.0)

constituted 130 of the 2,197 homicides in Atlanta, whereas black on black homicides constituted 1,306. The analysis of variance Table 4, shows that the race of the offender and victim has a significant impact on homicide.

Table 5 shows the sex of the victim and the offender. Male offenders killing male victims constituted 1,025 of the 2,197 homicides during the period from 1979-1989. Females killing females comprised the lowest rate of homicides (39 homicides out of the total or 16.5 percent). For sex of the offender and victim the analysis of variance Table 6 shows that sex had a high significance to homicide.

In Table 7 the homicide rates by motives are shown. Unknown (24.9 percent) was the number one motive given, verbal arguments were number two (24.6 percent). Overall, the analysis of variance Table (8) shows that the relationship between homicide and motives is significant.

Table 9 shows the homicide rates by weapons used. Deadly weapons were used in 72.8 percent of all homicides. Natural occurrences had the lowest percentage (0.6 percent). The analysis of variance

TABLE 4

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE IN ATLANTA HOMICIDES
BY RACE OF OFFENDER AND VICTIM

SOURCE OF VARIATION	SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARE	F	SIGNIF OF F
MAIN EFFECTS	496772.742	2	248386.371	296.019	0.000
ROF	13261.706	1	13261.706	15.808	.000
ROV	216432.937	1	216432.937	257.938	.000
2-WAY INTERACTIONS	47558.636	1	47558.636	56.679	.000
ROF ROV	47558.636	1	47558.636	56.679	.000
EXPLAINED	544331.377	3	181443.792	216.239	0.000
RESIDUAL	1416529.799	1689	839.088		
TOTAL	1960861.176	1692	1158.784		

TABLE 5

HOMICIDE RATES IN ATLANTA (1979-1989) BY SEX OF VICTIM AND SEX OF OFFENDER

SEX OF OFFENDER	SEX OF VICTIM		TOTAL
	MALE	FEMALE	
MALE	1025 (76.7%)	312 (23.3%)	1337 (60.9%)
FEMALE	197 (83.5%)	39 (16.5%)	236 (10.7%)
UNKNOWN	468 (75.0%)	156 (25.0%)	624 (28.4%)
TOTAL	1690 (76.9%)	507 (23.1%)	2197 (100.0)

TABLE 6

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE IN ATLANTA HOMICIDES
BY SEX OF OFFENDER AND VICTIM

SOURCE OF VARIATION	SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARE	F	SIGNIF OF F
MAIN EFFECTS	856449.397	2	428224.698	692.835	.000
SOF	408980.269	1	408980.269	661.699	.000
SOV	497229.225	1	497229.225	804.479	.000
2-WAY INTERACTIONS	34650.695	1	34650.695	56.062	.000
SOF SOV	34650.695	1	34650.695	56.062	.000
EXPLAINED	891100.092	3	297033.364	480.577	.000
RESIDUAL	969761.084	1569	618.076		
TOTAL	1860861.176	1572	1183.754		

TABLE 7

HOMICIDE RATES IN ATLANTA (1979-1989) BY MOTIVES

Motives	No. of Homicides in Atlanta	Percentage (N=2,017)
Verbal Argument	497	24.6
Emotional Argument	248	12.3
Sex Related	64	3.2
Lover's Tiff	29	1.4
Alcohol & Drug Related	240	11.9
Death Related	378	18.7
Theft	62	3.1
Unknown	504	24.9

TABLE 8

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE IN ATLANTA HOMICIDES BY MOTIVE

SOURCE OF VARIATION	SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARE	F	SIGNIF OF F
MAIN EFFECTS	388485.420	7	55497.917	422.858	0.000
MOTIVE	388485.420	7	55497.917	422.858	0.000
EXPLAINED	388485.420	7	55497.917	422.858	0.000
RESIDUAL	264327.346	2014	131.248		
TOTAL	652812.766	2021	323.015		

TABLE 9

HOMICIDE RATES IN ATLANTA (1979-1989) BY WEAPONS

Weapons Used	No. of Homicides in Atlanta	Percentage (N=2,042)
Deadly	1,486	72.8
Physical Objects	282	13.8
Physical Force	227	11.1
Natural Occurences	13	.6
Unknown	34	1.7

Table (10) shows that the type of weapons used is significantly related to homicide.

According to Table 11, temporal variations reveal that there is not a very significant difference in homicide rate by month. Weekends (Saturday, 20.9 percent and Sunday 15.9 percent) and the early morning hours (36.7 percent) and late night hours (41.5 percent) are significantly related to homicides. The analysis of variance Table 12 shows that day and time have the highest relationship to homicide of the temporal variations.

The Determination of Atlanta Homicide Trends

Figure 1 examines the trends between the relationship of the victim and offender. This Figure shows that strangers are most likely to commit and be victims of homicides, and that domestic homicides do not occur as often. This Figure also shows an increasing trend in stranger homicide rates from 1985 until 1989.

As seen in Figures 2 and 3, black homicide rates tended to decrease in 1983, but started to steadily increase in 1984. The rate of white homicides varied from 1979 to 1989 with no significant increase or decrease. Figures 4 and 5 indicate that males are more

TABLE 10

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE IN ATLANTA HOMICIDES BY WEAPONS

SOURCE OF VARIATION	SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARE	F	SIGNIF OF F
MAIN EFFECTS	4757443.002	4	1189360.750	4831.394	0.000
WEAPON	4757443.002	4	1189360.750	4831.394	0.000
EXPLAINED	4757443.002	4	1189360.750	4831.394	0.000
RESIDUAL	501403.384	2037	246.148		
TOTAL	5258846.386	2041	2576.403		

TABLE 11

HOMICIDE RATES IN ATLANTA (1979-1989) BY MONTH

Month	No. of Homicides in Atlanta	Percentage (N=2,042)
Jan	168	8.2
Feb	171	8.4
Mar	175	8.6
Apr	160	7.8
May	170	8.3
Jun	165	8.1
Jul	173	8.5
Aug	167	8.2
Sep	168	8.2
Oct	186	9.1
Nov	166	8.1
Dec	173	8.5

HOMICIDE RATES IN ATLANTA (1979-1989) BY DAY

Day	No. of Homicides in Atlanta	Percentage (N=2,034)
Sun	323	15.9
Mon	218	10.7
Tue	266	13.1
Wed	282	13.9
Thu	240	11.8
Fri	280	13.8
Sat	425	20.9

HOMICIDE RATES IN ATLANTA (1979-1989) BY TIME

Time	No. of Homicides in Atlanta	Percentage (N=2,042)
11 pm - 7 pm	749	36.7
7 am - 3 pm	445	21.8
3 pm - 11 pm	848	41.5

TABLE 12: ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE IN ATLANTA HOMICIDES BY TEMPORAL VARIATIONS

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE IN ATLANTA HOMICIDES BY MONTH

SOURCE OF VARIATION	SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARE	F	SIGNIF OF F
MAIN EFFECTS	644.925	11	58.630	2.786	.001
MONTH	644.925	11	58.630	2.786	.001
EXPLAINED	644.925	11	58.630	2.786	.001
RESIDUAL	42723.010	2030	21.046		
TOTAL	43367.935	2041	21.248		

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE IN ATLANTA HOMICIDES BY DAY

SOURCE OF VARIATION	SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARE	F	SIGNIF OF F
MAIN EFFECTS	70210.828	6	11701.805	242.964	0.000
DAY	70210.828	6	11701.805	242.964	0.000
EXPLAINED	70210.828	6	11701.805	242.964	0.000
RESIDUAL	97625.783	2027	48.163		
TOTAL	167836.612	2033	82.556		

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE IN ATLANTA HOMICIDES BY TIME

SOURCE OF VARIATION	SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARE	F	SIGNIF OF F
MAIN EFFECTS	452051.335	2	226025.667	1038.243	0.000
TIME	452051.335	2	226025.667	1038.243	0.000
EXPLAINED	452051.335	2	226025.667	1038.243	0.000
RESIDUAL	443890.790	2039	217.700		
TOTAL	895942.125	2041	438.972		

FIGURE 1

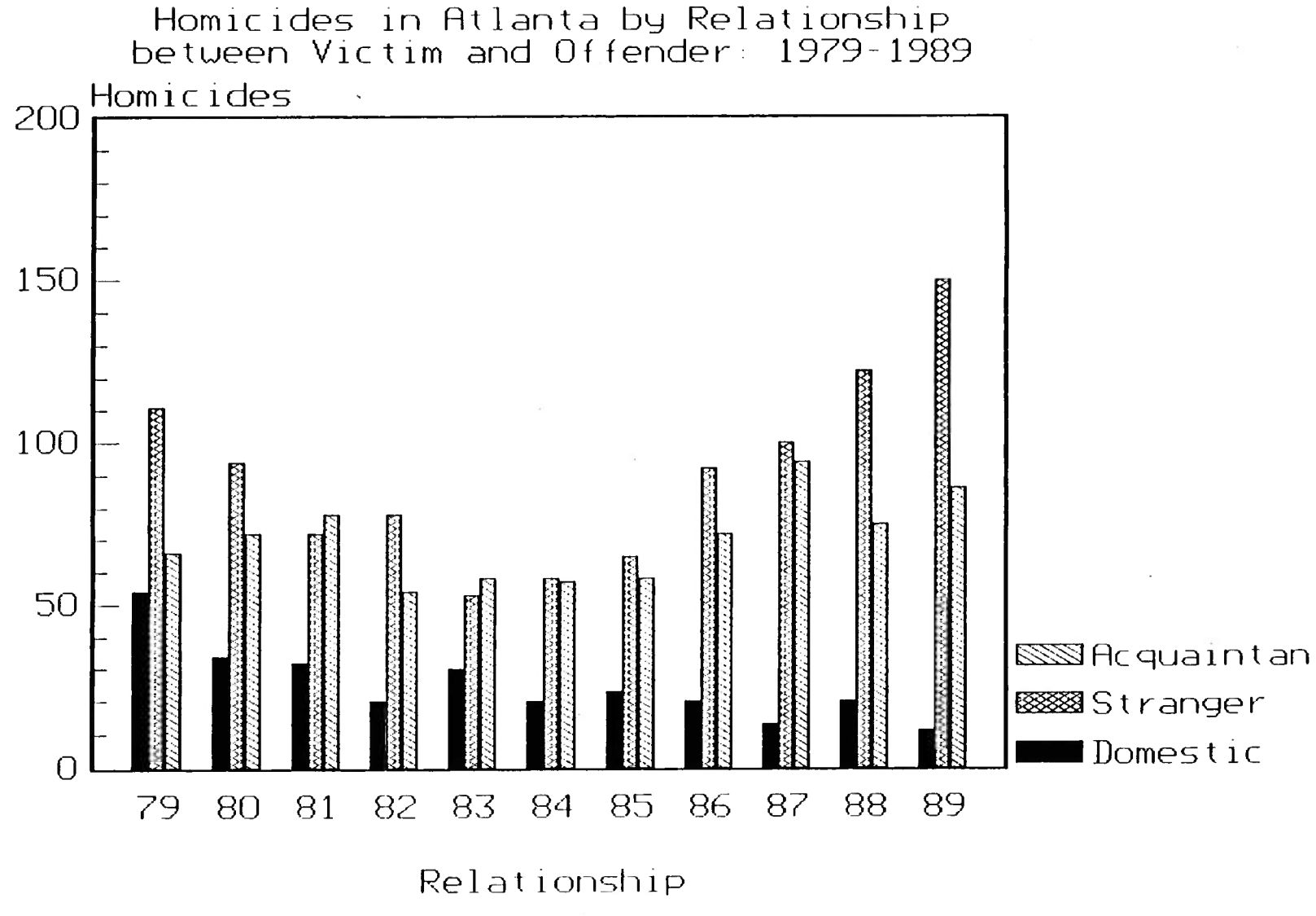

Homicides in Atlanta by Relationship
between Victim and Offender: 1979-1989
Homicides
200
150
100
50
0
79
80
81
82
83
84
85
86
87
88
89
Relationship
Acquaintan
Stranger
Domestic

FIGURE 2

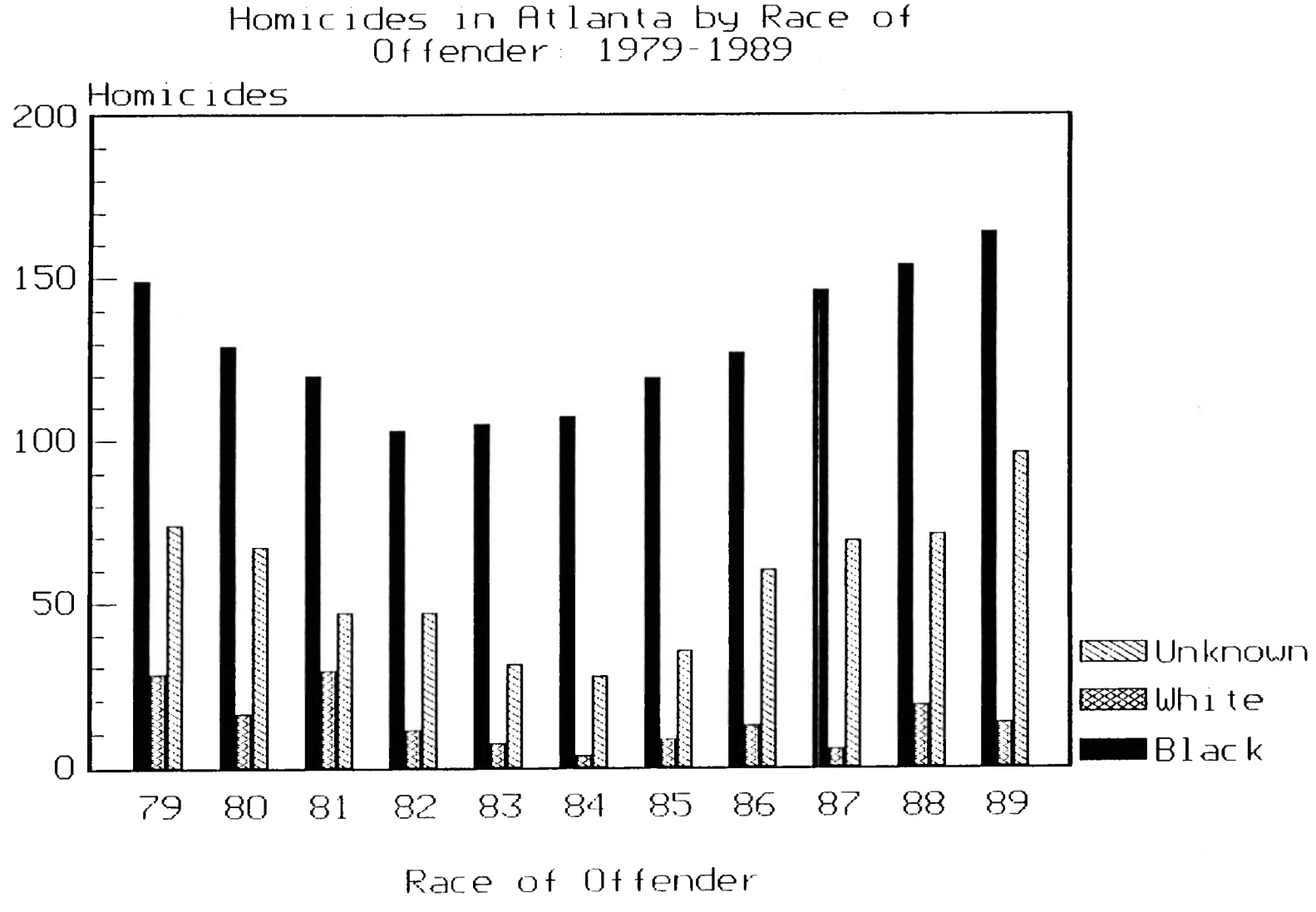

Homicides in Atlanta by Race of Offender 1979-1989
Homicides
200
150
100
50
0
79
80
81
82
83
84
85
86
87
88
89
Race of Offender
Unknown
White
Black

FIGURE 3

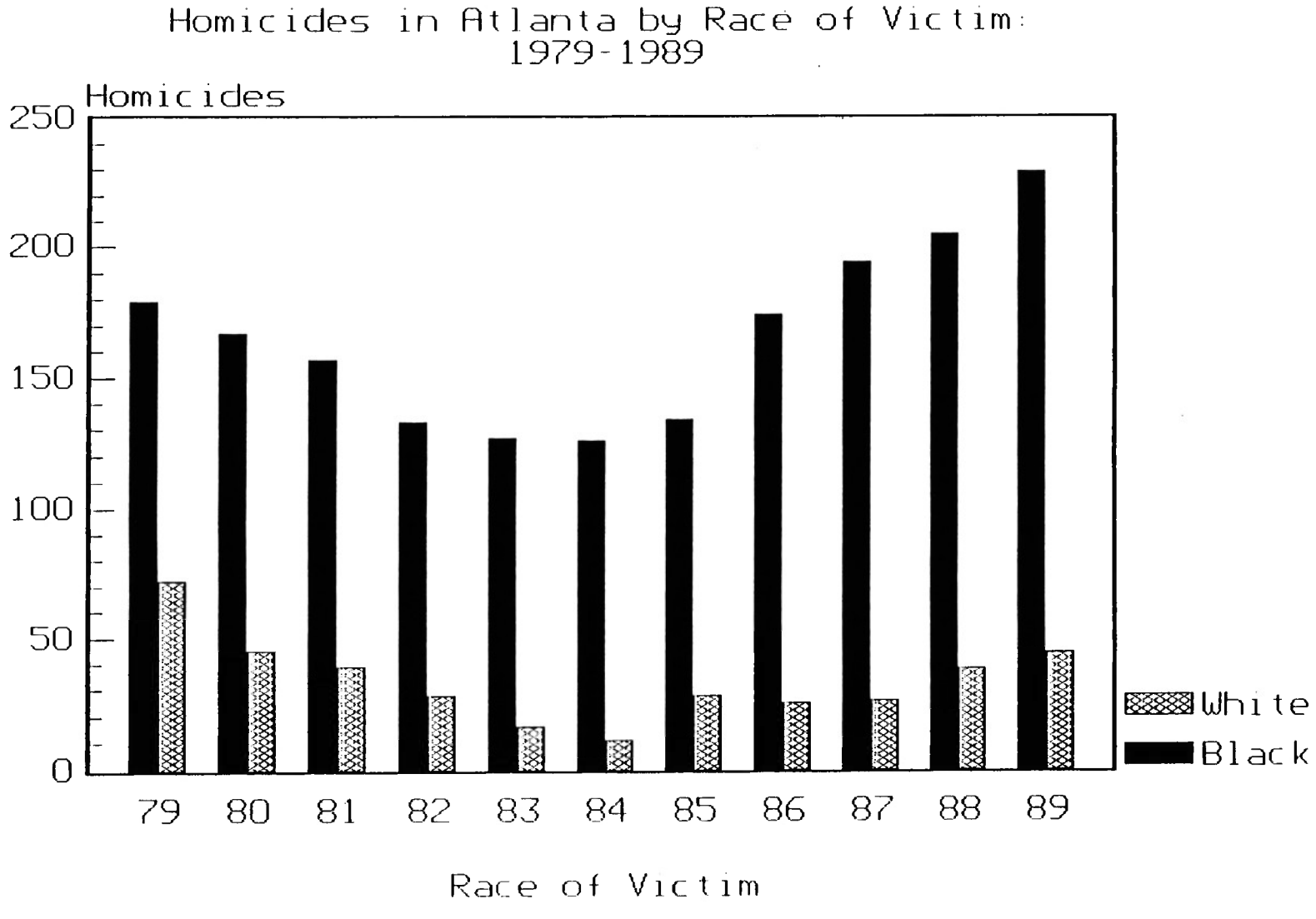

Homicides in Atlanta by Race of Victim:
1979-1989
Homicides
250
200
150
100
50
0
79
80
81
82
83
84
85
86
87
88
89
White
Black
Race of Victim

FIGURE 4

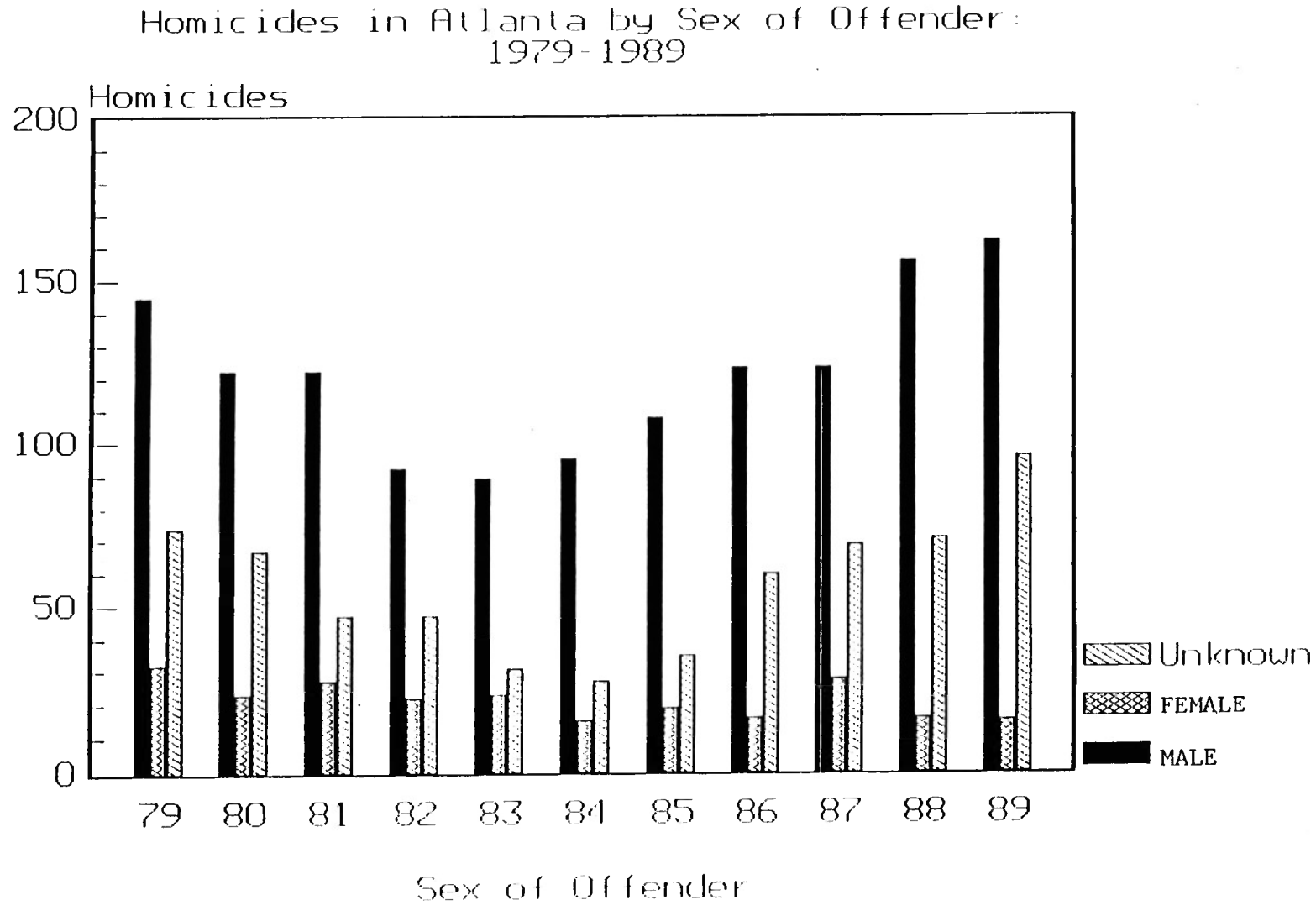
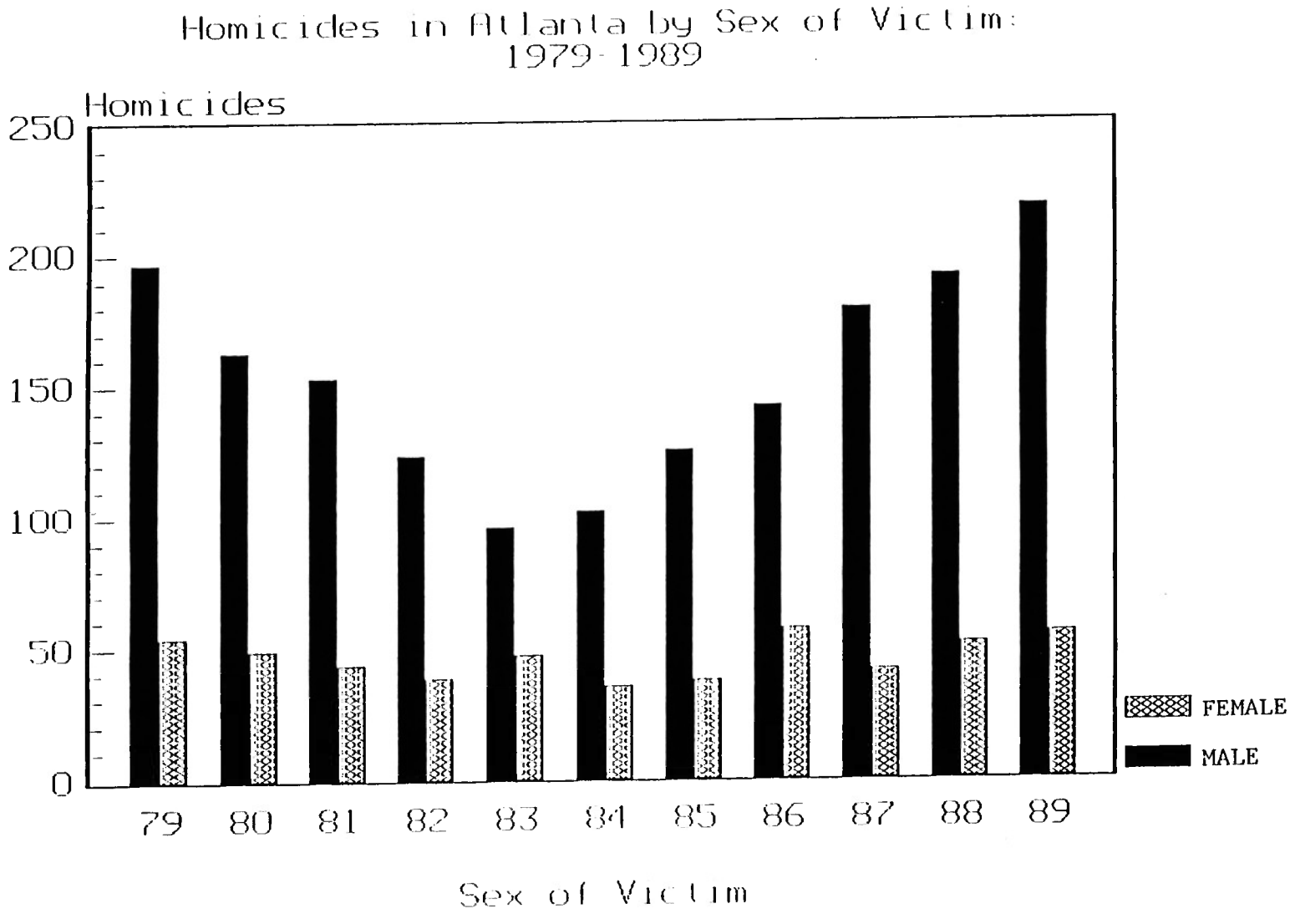

Homicides in Atlanta by Sex of Offender:
1979-1989
Homicides
200
150
100
50
0
79
80
81
82
83
84
85
86
87
88
89
Sex of Offender
Unknown
FEMALE
MALE

FIGURE 5


Homicides in Atlanta by Sex of Victim:
1979-1989
Homicides
250
200
150
100
50
0
79
80
81
82
83
84
85
86
87
88
89
Sex of Victim
FEMALE
MALE

susceptible as victims and offenders in the incidence of homicide than females. There was a decrease in the male homicide rate in 1982-1983, but in 1984 the rates rose drastically.

The highest motive shown in Figure 6 is verbal arguments which showed a very sharp increase from 1988 to 1989. Lovers' tiffs was the lowest motive in Figure 7 and remained fairly constant throughout 1979-1989.

As shown in Figure 8, the use of deadly weapons had a high impact on homicides. Physical objects ranked second in the commission of homicides.

The temporal variations shown in Figures 9-14 disclose that for all months there was a drop off in homicides between 1983 and 1985, but an increase from 1985 to 1989. Saturday and Sunday were the days most homicide prone, and the hours of 11:00 p.m. - 7:00 a.m and 3:00 p.m.- 11:00 p.m. were the high homicide incidence periods.

The Prediction of Future Homicide Trends in the City of Atlanta

Table 13 projects that strangers in the future will no longer be the main perpetrators of homicides, rather acquaintances will be the main perpetrators. The rise

FIGURE 6

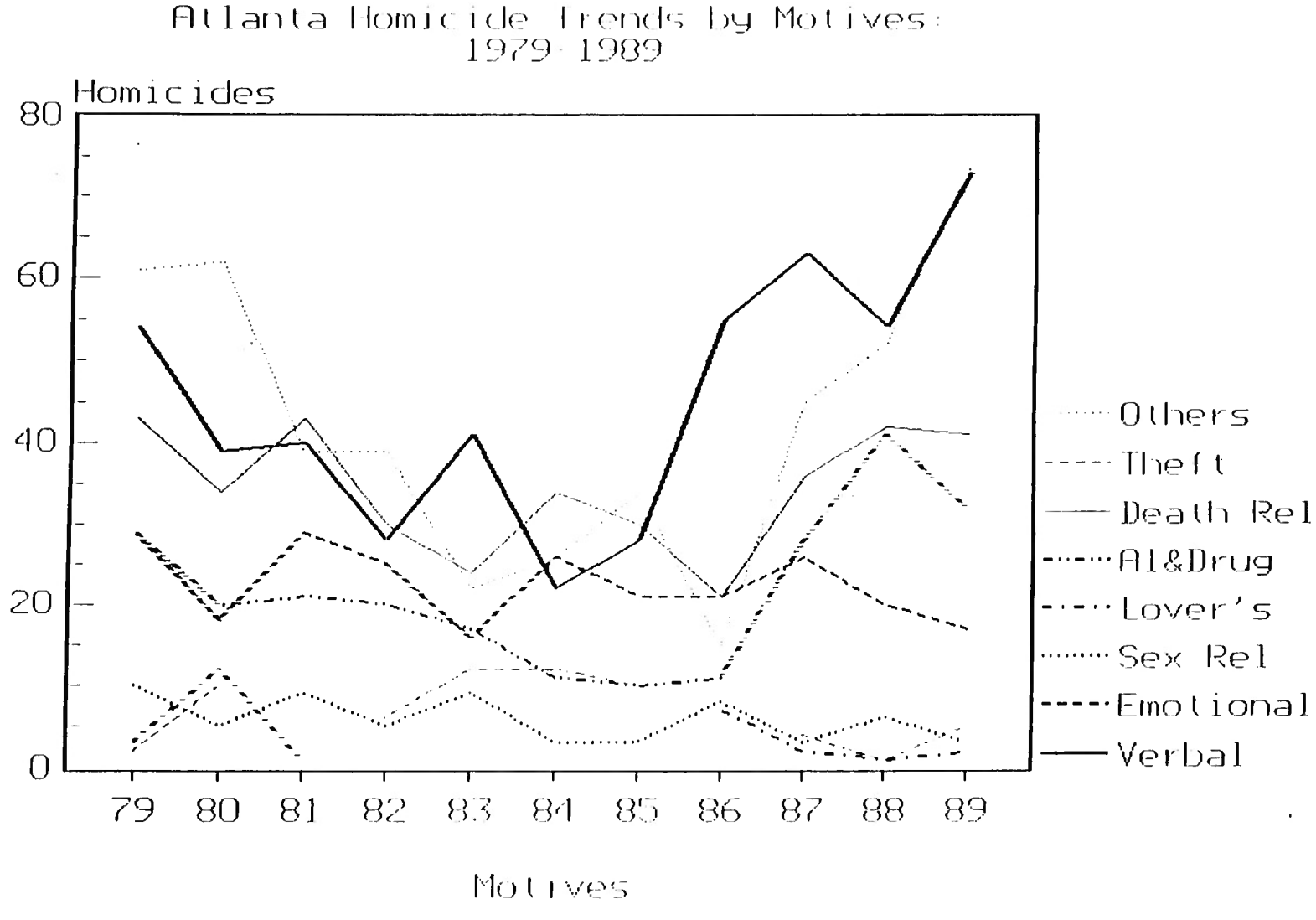

Atlanta Homicide Trends by Motives:
1979-1989
Homicides
80
60
40
20
0
79
80
81
82
83
84
85
86
87
88
89
Motives
Others
Theft
Death Rel
Al&Drug
Lover's
Sex Rel
Emotional
Verbal

FIGURE 7

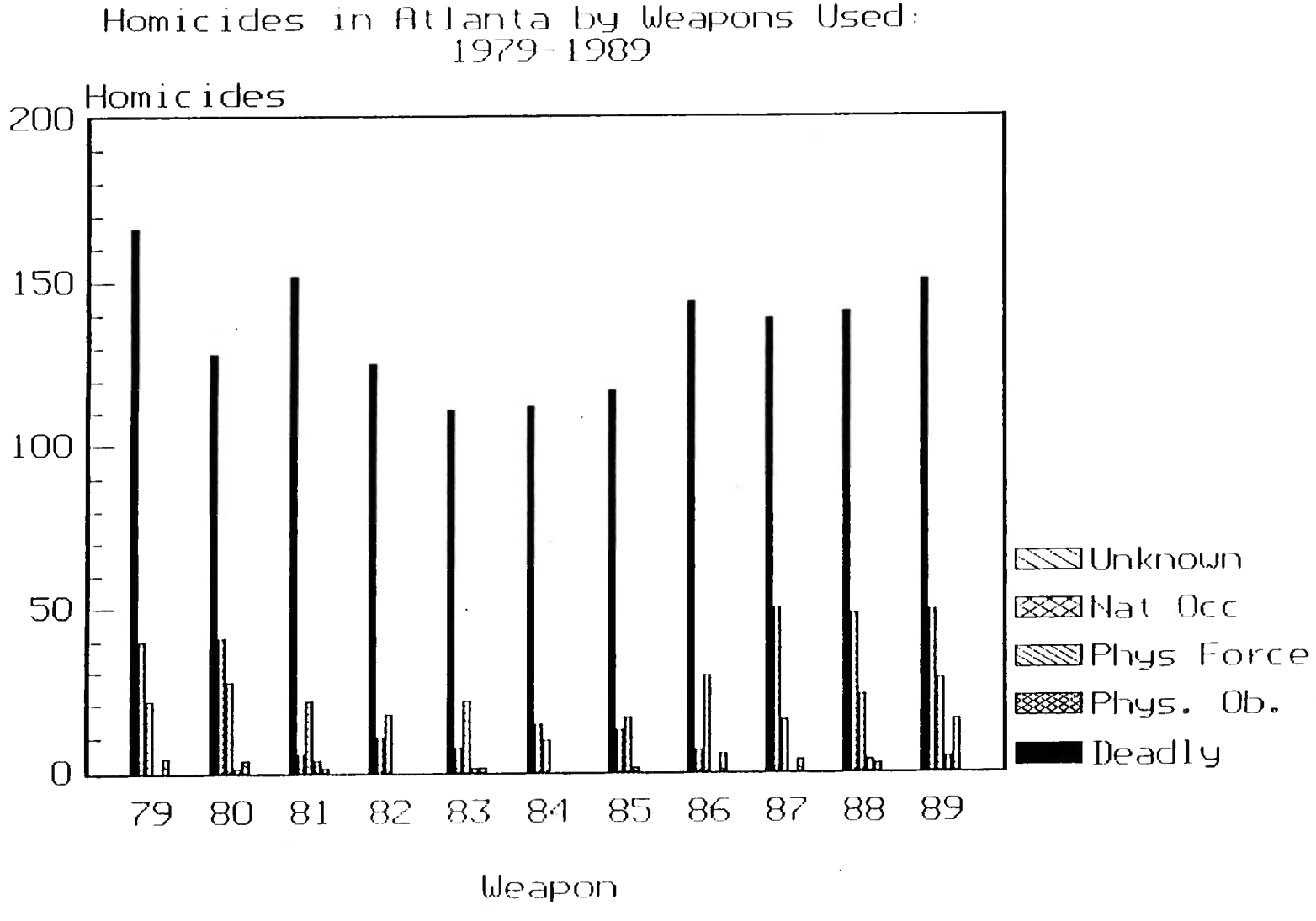

Homicides in Atlanta by Weapons Used:
1979-1989
Homicides
200
150
100
50
0
79
80
81
82
83
84
85
86
87
88
89
Weapon
Unknown
Nat Occ
Phys Force
Phys. Ob.
Deadly

FIGURE 8

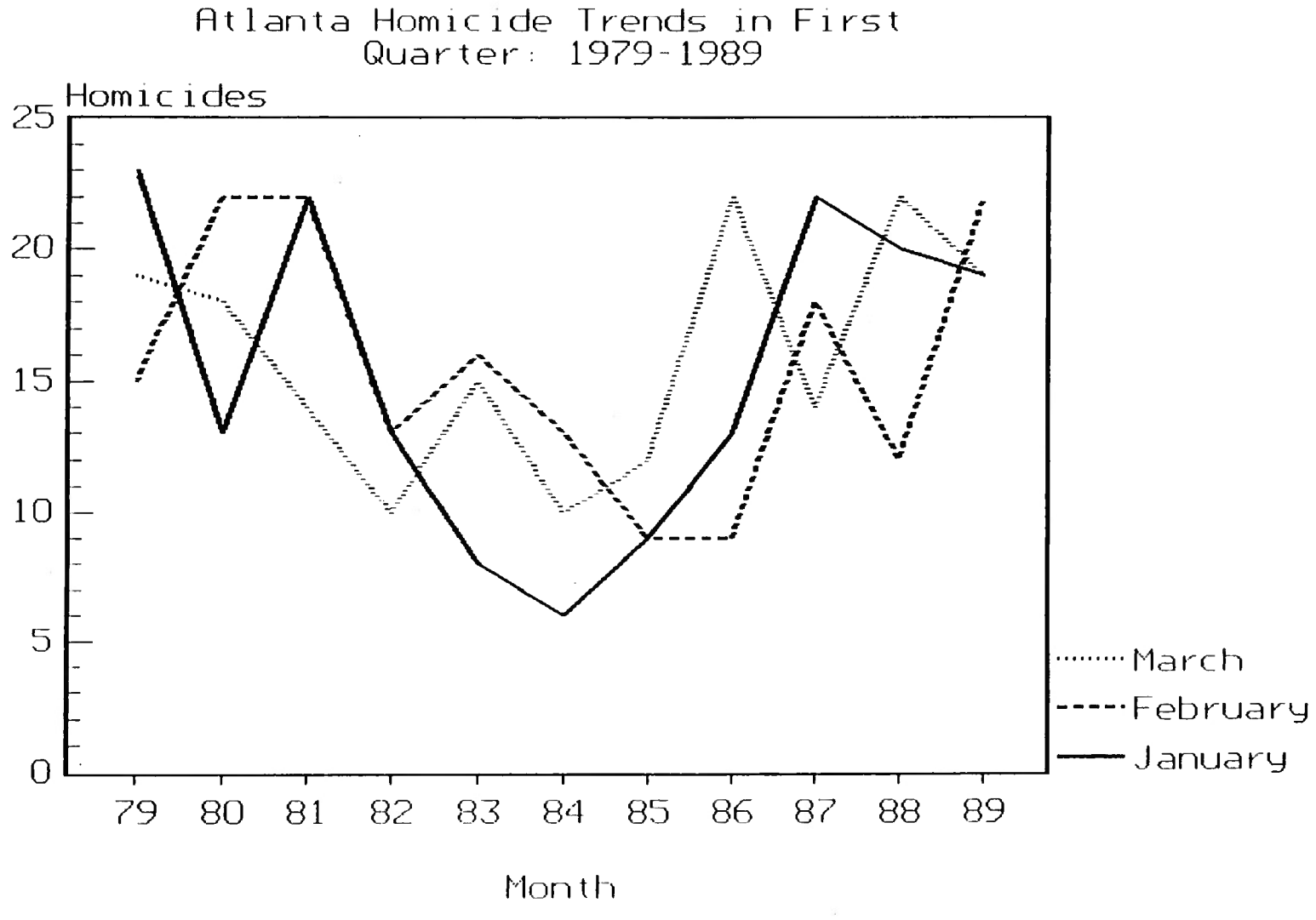

Atlanta Homicide Trends in First Quarter: 1979-1989
Homicides
25
20
15
10
5
0
79
80
81
82
83
84
85
86
87
88
89
Month
March
February
January

FIGURE 9

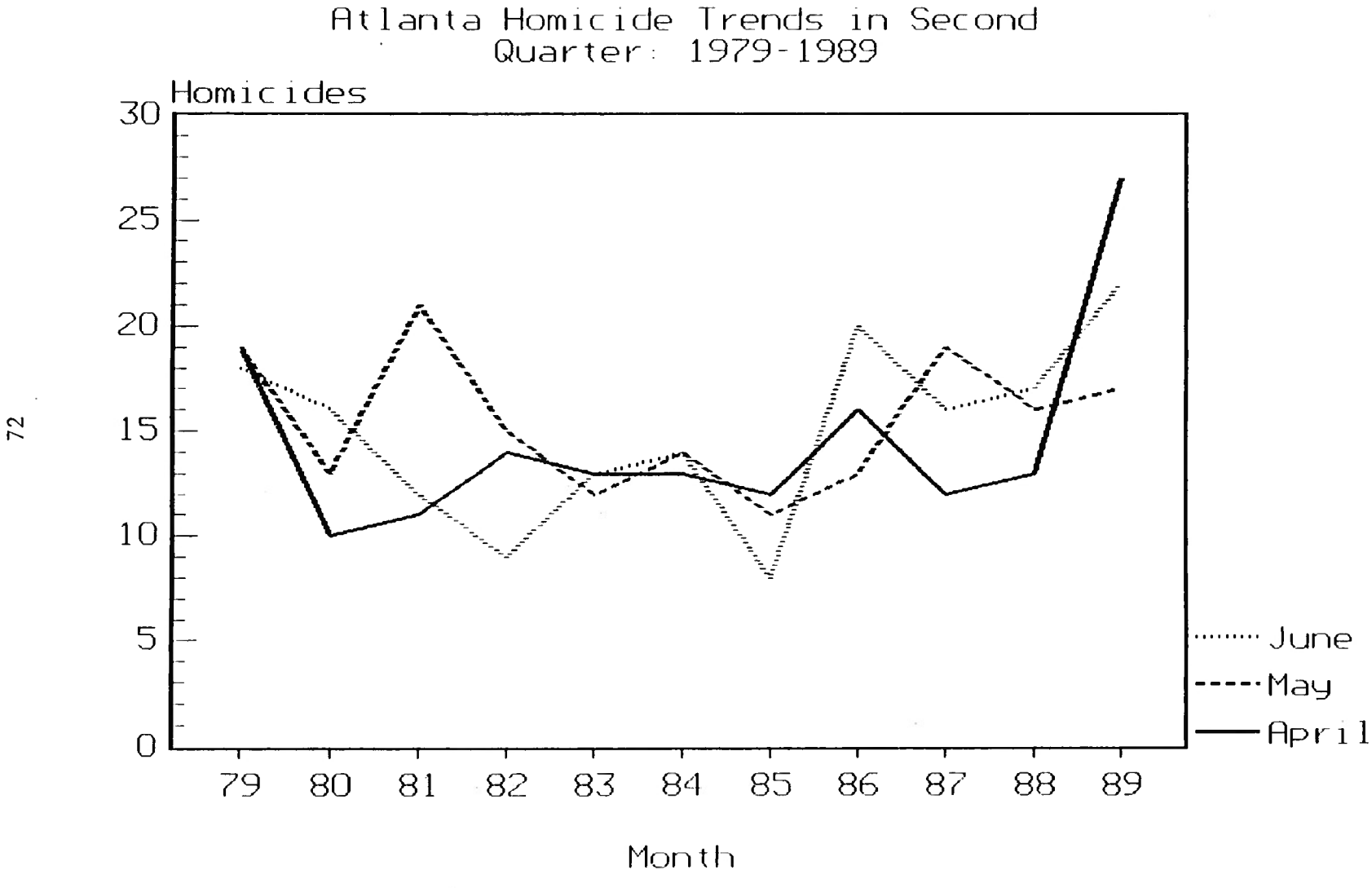

Atlanta Homicide Trends in Second Quarter: 1979-1989
Homicides
30
25
20
15
10
5
0
79
80
81
82
83
84
85
86
87
88
89
Month
June
May
April

FIGURE 10

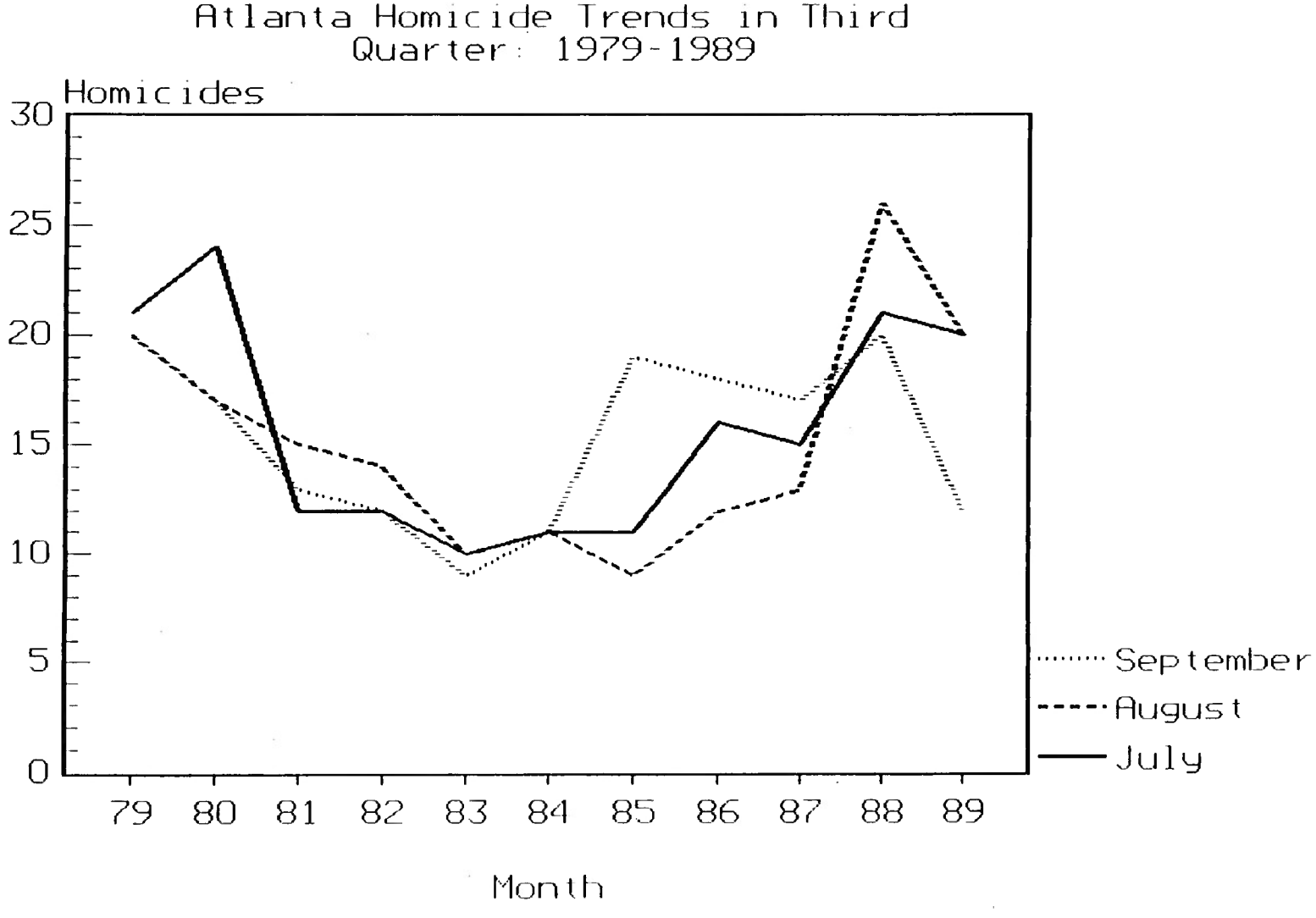

Atlanta Homicide Trends in Third Quarter: 1979-1989
Homicides
30
25
20
15
10
5
0
79
80
81
82
83
84
85
86
87
88
89
Month
September
August
July

FIGURE 11

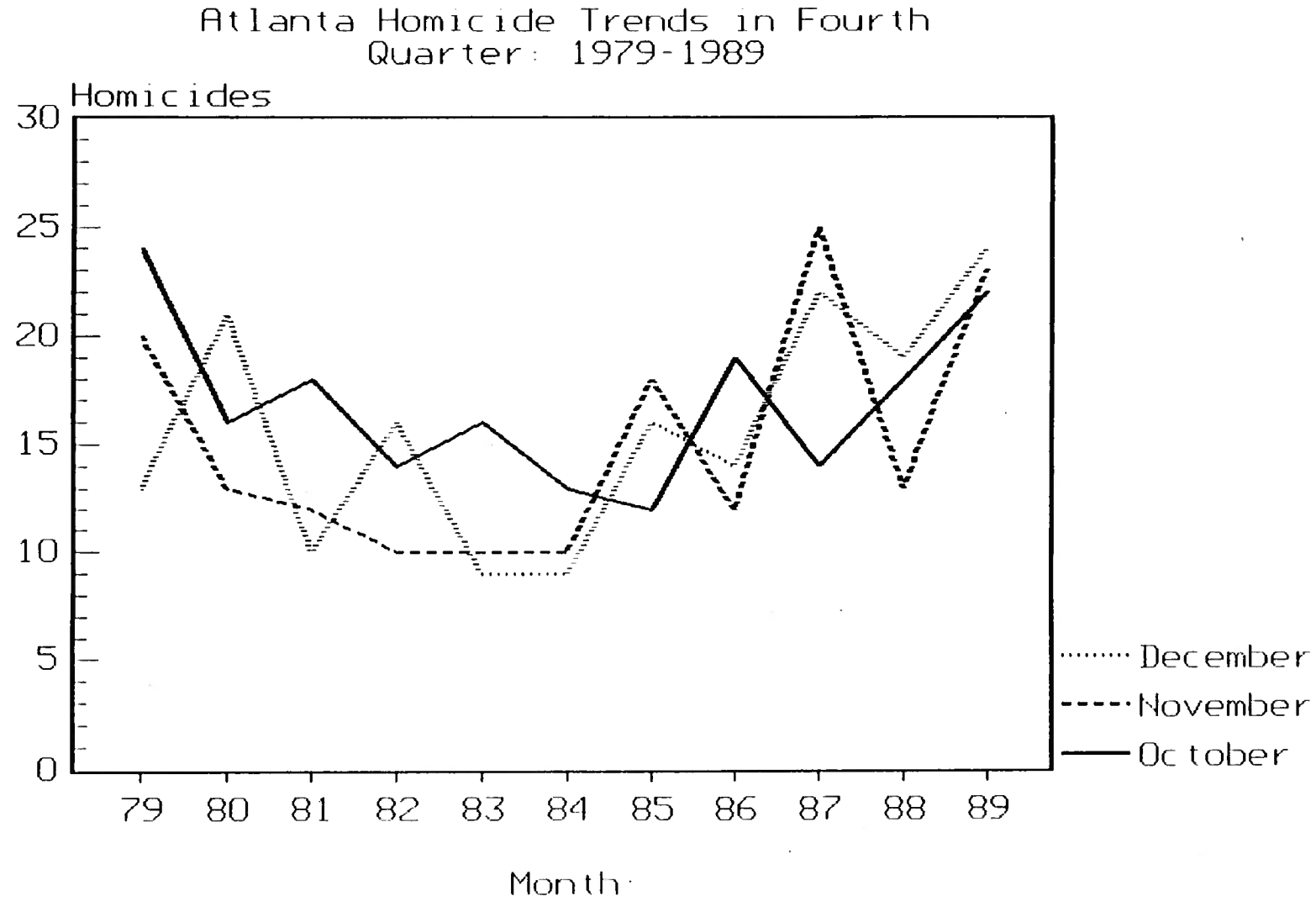

Atlanta Homicide Trends in Fourth Quarter: 1979-1989
Homicides
30
25
20
15
10
5
0
79
80
81
82
83
84
85
86
87
88
89
Month
December
November
October

FIGURE 12

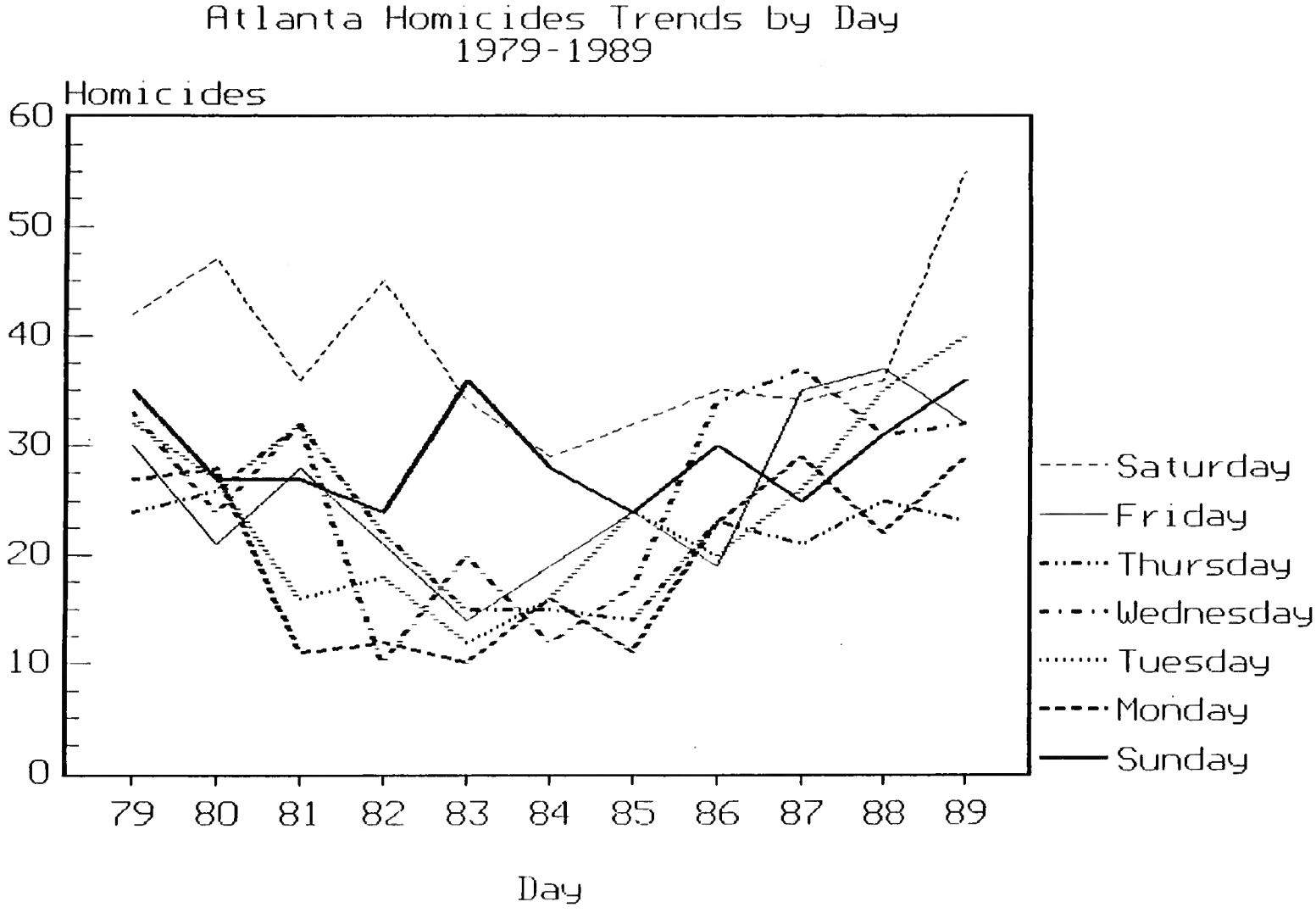

Atlanta Homicides Trends by Day
1979-1989
Homicides
60
50
40
30
20
10
0
79
80
81
82
83
84
85
86
87
88
89
Day
Saturday
Friday
Thursday
Wednesday
Tuesday
Monday
Sunday

FIGURE 13

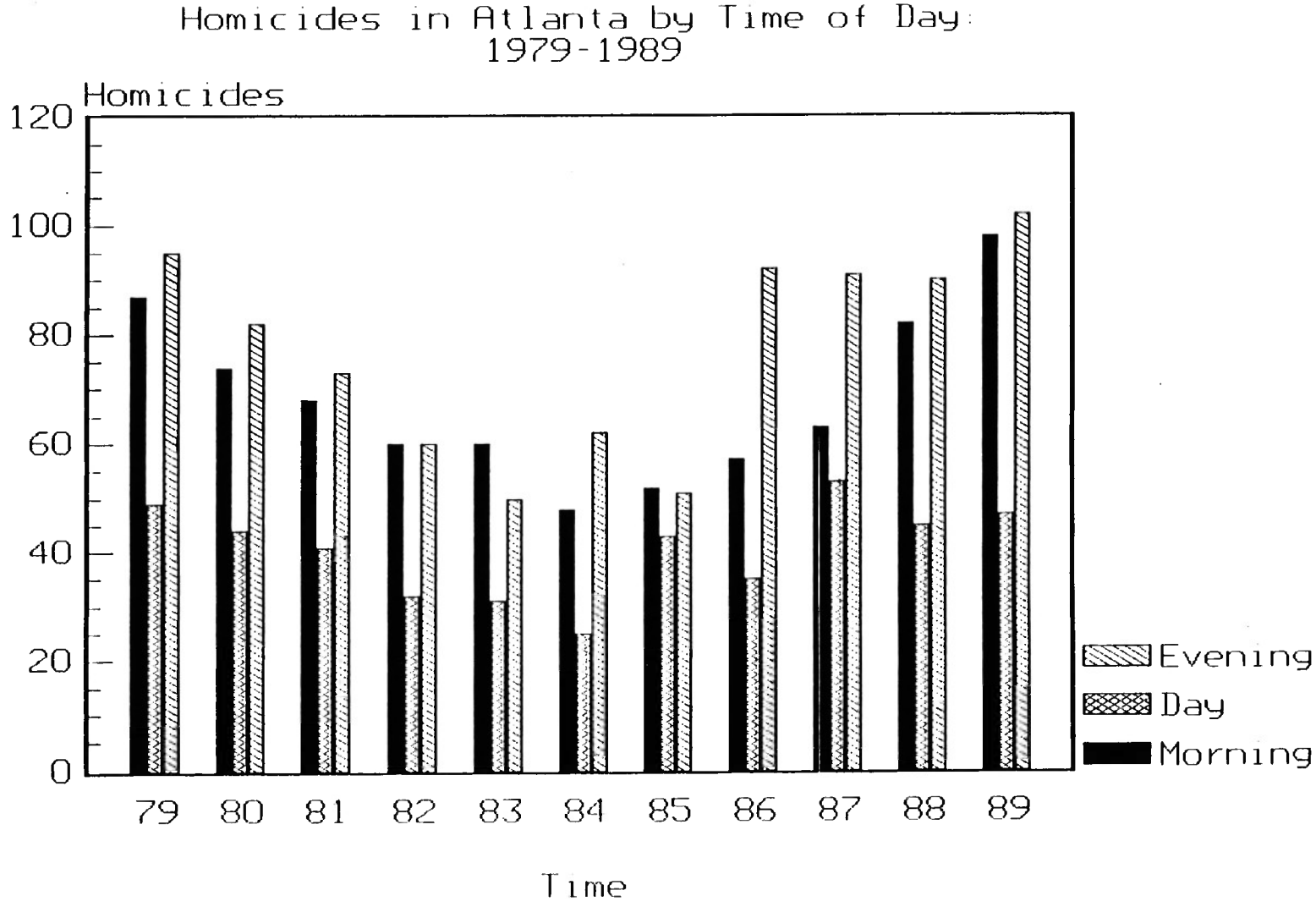

Homicides in Atlanta by Time of Day
1979-1989
Homicides
120
100
80
60
40
20
0
79
80
81
82
83
84
85
86
87
88
89
Time
Evening
Day
Morning

TABLE 13

ATLANTA HOMICIDE PROJECTIONS@ TO YEAR 2000
BY RELATIONSHIP OF VICTIM TO OFFENDER

Year	Domestic	Stranger	Acquaintance
1979	54	111	66
1980	34	94	72
1981	32	72	78
1982	20	78	64
1983	30	53	68
1984	20	58	67
1985	23	65	88
1986	20	92	72
1987	13	100	94
1988	20	122	78
1989	11	130	96
1990	17	19	99
1991	19	23	42
1992	22	29	55
1993	26	34	69
1994	30	40	84
1995	35	46	101
1996	41	53	120
1997	48	61	139
1998	56	70	161
1999	64	79	183
2000	73	88	209

@ = Actual Homicides in Atlanta were for years 1979-1989 (See Source Below) and projected homicides were computed for years 1990-2000.

Source: Bureau of Police Services, Annual Reports (for the Years of 1979 through 1989), Central Records Unit, Administrative Services Division, Atlanta, Georgia.

in black on black homicide will steadily increase to the year 2000 (See Table 14). The male homicide rate will more than triple by the year 2000 according to Table 15. Female homicide rates will also increase but not as drastically. Table 16 shows that the summer months will have the highest homicide rates in the coming years. As seen in Table 17, "unknown" will remain the number one homicide motive followed by verbal arguments. Alcohol and drug related motives will grow rapidly. In Table 18 it is noted that deadly weapons will remain the number one choice for use in homicides, and that the use of physical objects will increase. Tables 19 and 20 show that the weekends, late night and early morning hours will continue to be the most likely time periods for the commission of homicides.

TABLE 14

ATLANTA HOMICIDE PROJECTIONS@ TO YEAR 2000 BY RACE OF THE OFFENDER AND THE VICTIM

	Black Kills		White Kills		Unknown Kills	
Year	Black	White	Black	White	Black	White
1979	128	21	2	26	49	25
1980	115	14	1	15	51	16
1981	114	6	3	26	40	7
1982	98	5	0	11	35	12
1983	100	5	1	6	26	5
1984	100	7	1	2	25	2
1985	104	15	3	5	27	8
1986	124	3	5	7	45	15
1987	136	10	1	4	57	12
1988	137	17	2	16	66	5
1989	150	14	1	12	78	18
1990	197	22	*	1	9	9
1991	224	28	*	1	11	11
1992	257	35	*	1	14	12
1993	292	43	*	2	16	14
1994	332	52	*	2	19	15
1995	376	61	*	2	22	17
1996	423	72	*	2	26	19
1997	474	84	*	3	30	21
1998	530	96	*	3	34	24
1999	589	109	*	3	38	26
2000	651	124	*	4	43	29

Note: * represents insufficient frequencies for projections.

@ See Table 13

TABLE -15

ATLANTA HOMICIDE PROJECTIONS@ TO YEAR 2000
BY GENDER OF VICTIM AND OFFENDER

Year	Male Kills		Female Kills		Unknown Kills	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1979	113	32	24	8	16	14
1980	93	29	22	1	48	19
1981	100	22	21	6	32	18
1982	70	22	21	1	32	18
1983	58	31	20	3	18	13
1984	72	23	12	3	18	9
1985	78	18	16	3	31	4
1986	91	32	13	3	38	31
1987	106	17	21	7	52	17
1988	119	37	14	1	59	10
1989	126	37	13	3	80	16
1990	139	40	18	4	104	18
1991	157	48	15	4	131	20
1992	220	51	15	5	161	22
1993	256	57	16	6	198	25
1994	296	64	17	7	233	28
1995	341	72	18	9	278	31
1996	389	80	19	9	320	35
1997	442	89	20	10	369	39
1998	498	99	22	11	422	43
1999	559	109	24	13	479	48
2000	624	120	26	14	539	53

@ See Table 13

TABLE 16

ATLANTA HOMICIDE PROJECTIONS@ TO YEAR 2000 BY MOTIVES

Year	Verbal Argument	Emotional Argument	Sex Related	Lover's Tiff	Alcohol & Drug Related	Death Related	Theft	Others
1979	54	29	10	1	29	43	2	61
1980	39	18	5	12	20	34	10	62
1981	40	29	9	1	21	43	0	39
1982	28	25	5	0	20	10	6	39
1983	41	16	9	0	17	24	12	22
1984	22	26	1	1	11	34	12	26
1985	20	21	1	0	10	10	10	34
1986	55	21	8	7	11	21	0	15
1987	63	26	1	2	28	36	4	45
1988	54	20	6	1	41	42	1	52
1989	63	17	1	2	32	41	5	74
1990	91	19	4	4	48	49	61	90
1991	108	18	4	5	59	57	69	111
1992	129	18	4	6	72	65	78	135
1993	151	17	5	8	87	75	86	162
1994	176	16	5	10	101	86	96	192
1995	204	15	5	12	121	99	105	225
1996	234	15	6	14	140	112	115	261
1997	266	14	6	17	161	127	126	301
1998	300	13	7	20	184	142	137	343
1999	337	12	7	21	208	159	148	389
2000	376	12	8	26	214	178	160	437

@ See Table 13

TABLE 17

ATLANTA HOMICIDE PROJECTIONS@ TO YEAR 2000
BY WEAPONS

Year	Deadly	Physical Objects	Physical Force	Natural Occurrances	Unknown
1979	166	40	21	0	4
1980	128	41	27	1	3
1981	152	5	21	3	1
1982	125	10	17	0	0
1983	111	7	21	1	1
1984	112	14	9	0	0
1985	117	12	16	1	0
1986	144	6	29	0	6
1987	139	50	15	0	3
1988	141	48	23	3	2
1989	151	49	28	4	15
1990	173	79	31	4	13
1991	193	103	36	5	20
1992	215	129	41	7	25
1993	241	159	47	8	31
1994	269	192	54	10	39
1995	300	228	61	11	46
1996	335	268	70	13	53
1997	372	311	79	15	61
1998	413	357	88	17	70
1999	456	406	99	20	80
2000	503	459	110	22	91

@ See Table 13

TABLE 18

ATLANTA HOMICIDE PROJECTIONS@ TO YEAR 2000 BY MONTH

Year	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
1979	23	15	19	19	19	18	21	20	20	24	20	13
1980	13	22	18	10	13	16	24	17	17	16	13	21
1981	22	22	14	11	21	12	12	15	13	18	12	10
1982	13	13	10	14	15	9	12	14	12	14	10	16
1983	8	16	15	13	12	13	10	10	9	16	10	9
1984	6	13	10	13	14	14	11	11	11	13	10	9
1985	9	9	12	12	11	8	11	9	19	12	18	16
1986	13	9	22	16	13	20	16	12	18	19	12	14
1987	22	18	14	12	19	16	15	13	17	14	25	22
1988	20	12	22	13	16	17	21	26	20	18	13	19
1989	19	22	19	27	17	22	20	20	12	22	23	24
1990	28	21	25	26	20	26	28	28	20	25	27	29
1991	35	24	29	31	22	31	34	35	22	29	32	33
1992	42	28	34	36	25	36	40	42	24	34	38	39
1993	50	32	39	42	28	41	48	50	27	40	44	45
1994	60	37	45	48	31	48	57	59	29	46	50	52
1995	70	42	52	55	35	55	66	68	33	53	58	59
1996	81	48	59	63	39	62	77	79	36	60	66	67
1997	93	55	66	71	44	71	88	91	40	68	75	76
1998	106	62	74	80	49	80	101	104	44	77	84	85
1999	120	69	83	90	54	89	114	117	49	86	94	95
2000	136	77	92	100	60	99	128	77	53	97	105	105

TABLE 19

ATLANTA HOMICIDE PROJECTIONS@ TO YEAR 2000 BY DAY

Year	Sun	Mon	Tue	Wed	Thu	Fri	Sat
1979	35	27	32	33	24	30	42
1980	27	28	27	24	26	21	47
1981	27	11	16	32	32	28	36
1982	24	12	18	10	22	21	45
1983	36	10	12	20	15	14	34
1984	28	16	16	12	15	19	29
1985	24	11	24	17	14	24	32
1986	30	23	20	34	23	19	35
1987	35	29	26	37	21	36	34
1988	31	22	35	31	25	37	36
1989	36	29	40	32	23	32	38
1990	36	40	52	46	29	44	54
1991	39	48	63	55	32	51	62
1992	43	58	77	64	36	61	71
1993	47	70	92	75	41	70	81
1994	51	82	108	88	47	81	93
1995	56	96	126	101	54	93	108
1996	61	111	146	116	61	106	119
1997	67	128	167	132	68	119	134
1998	73	148	191	149	77	134	150
1999	79	164	215	167	86	150	168
2000	86	184	241	187	96	167	186

TABLE 20

ATLANTA HOMICIDE PROJECTIONS@ TO YEAR 2000 BY TIME

Year	Morning	Day	Evening
1979	87	49	95
1980	74	44	82
1981	68	41	73
1982	60	32	60
1983	60	31	60
1984	48	25	62
1985	52	43	81
1986	57	35	92
1987	63	53	91
1988	82	45	90
1989	98	47	102
1990	113	60	129
1991	135	69	151
1992	160	80	178
1993	188	91	207
1994	219	104	239
1995	254	118	274
1996	291	133	313
1997	333	150	355
1998	377	168	400
1999	424	188	449
2000	475	209	500

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study was to: 1) examine the relationship between homicide rates in Atlanta (1979-1989) by: victim-offender relationships, race and gender of victim and offender, motives, weapons used, and temporal variations; 2) determine Atlanta's homicide trends by the foregoing variables; and, 3) predict the future homicide trends in the City of Atlanta utilizing the six study variables from 1990 through 2000 A.D. This was accomplished by using Descriptive Analysis which consisted of cross-tabulations, and Inferential Analysis which consisted of Analysis of Variance and Trend Analysis.

The following hypotheses were tested and the following conclusions were determined from the data:

Hypothesis 1: There is a significant relationship between victim-offender relationship, race and gender of victim and offender, motives, weapons used, temporal variations and Atlanta homicides during the period

1979-1989.

The six study variables do have a significant relationship with the homicide rates during the time period 1979-1989. This is demonstrated by the Analysis of Variance charts which show that the significance level of each variable is (.000) except for months which is (.001).

Hypothesis 2: There has been an increasing trend in Atlanta homicide between 1979 and 1989.

The trends in Atlanta's homicides increased from 1979-1981; decreased from 1981-1984; and then increased again until 1989. There was no gradual increase for the time period specified.

Hypothesis 3: There are no major shifts in Atlanta homicides by victim-offender relationships, race, gender, motives, weapons used and seasonal variations from 1979 through 1989.

Hypothesis three is confirmed. There have been no major shifts in Atlanta's homicides by the six study variables from 1979-1989.

Hypothesis 4: The prediction of homicides from 1990

to 2000 indicate an increasing trend of homicide in Atlanta.

Hypothesis four is also confirmed. The Trend Analysis Test discloses that from the years 1990 through 2000, Atlanta's homicides will continue to rise; and that these rates will continue to have a relationship with the six study variables.

The data also discloses that intraracial homicide in Atlanta follows a similar national pattern. Blacks tend to kill blacks more and whites tend to kill whites. Furthermore, the data shows that females kill males at a significantly higher rate than they kill females and males kill males more frequently than they kill females. These findings give credibility to the maxim that black males are an endangered species.

SUMMARY

Black homicide in Atlanta increase from 1979-1981; decreased from 1981-1984 and increased from 1984-1989. Black males were the main victims and offenders. This increase will continue to rise until the year 2000 given current conditions. One very significant finding is that males kill males and females also kill males. The

disproportionate number of black homicide perpetrators and victims may reflect a variety of social inequalities in America resulting in: racial oppression, unemployment, underemployment, segregation, subcultures of violence, negative role models and unfulfilled aspirations. Currently the goals to be reached for the black male and white male are the same, however, the means of attaining these goals are not available to the black male due to the threat the successful black male poses on the white male. The means to success for black women have been made more accessible in this society than they have for black men. Therefore, in my opinion, the means to success now open to black females must be made available to black males.

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